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EDUCATION AND THE TEACHER

EDUCATION
and the
TEACHER

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Education and the Teacher is a ringing, optimistic invitation to able young people to choose to teach. It comes from an accomplished teacher educator who, himself, has made this choice—obviously with no regrets. It is a presentation, done with care, meticulous scholarship, and deep convictions, supported by an unshakable faith in the cause of education and genuine enthusiasm for teaching. With skill and unusual candidness the author treats the key questions that confront prospective teachers, avoiding as he does the temptations to oversimplify or to indulge in emotionalized approaches. An outstanding quality of the book is the manner in which it introduces the reader to the field, with brevity imposed by the nature of the task, without becoming superficial in its treatment or unbalanced in its coverage. The author accomplishes the difficult feat of calling attention to important issues and problems, giving the reader objective supporting data, pertinent information and promising trends, while clothing his presentation in a lively prose style that grips interest from one chapter to the next.

The publication of this book by Dodd, Mead and Company comes at a crucial time—the beginning of an era when excellence in education is recognized as the key to national survival as well as the means of individual fulfillment. The forthright invitation to teaching it presents, although prepared by one author, in reality comes from the hearts of people everywhere. The United States appeals today to able young people to choose to teach. Such a summons results from an explosive public awareness that as a nation we must educate or perish, while for individuals, the mandate is learn or lose out. The ultimate contribution of the teacher, wherever he may instruct, is to the cause of freedom.

As rewarding as aiding the crusade for freedom is, the teacher reaps other benefits that are personal, intellectual, human—and immediate. He derives from his daily work satisfactions that come only from helping others. He enjoys a leadership role in his community that is restricted only by his own limitations. In short, he leads a life from which the future is ever a challenge and the backward look is always an inspiration. Such is the message of *Education and the Teacher*, offered without apology for the pitfalls that may lie in wait along the way, with promises that are real and substantial to the young man or woman—with ability—who is searching for hills to climb, values by which to live, and humanity to serve.

LINDLEY J. STILES

PREFACE

This book is intended for young people who are considering, or beginning, preparation for a career in education. It introduces the student to the role and importance of education and the nature and requirements of teaching. Guides and information are provided to help each student evaluate his own interest in and qualification for the work and life of the teacher.

The basic theme of *Education and the Teacher* is twofold: first, the survival and progress of civilization depend on the quality of education provided; and second, teaching is a stimulating and satisfying profession. Education is recognized today as vital both to the individual, whose intellectual and creative capacities it develops, and to the nation for whom the resources of trained brain power are made available. Teachers hold the key to the success of this important process. In this responsibility they not only are privileged to share in an exciting adventure of mankind, the discovery, transmittal, and application of knowledge; they carry the mantle of the world's mother profession—one that undergirds intellectual development in all fields.

Teaching is presented, not as the feeble, embryonic part-time guild field it has been, but rather as the vigorous, mature profession it is becoming. The promise it holds for able, mature, and ambitious young people is one of high intellectual stimulation, socially important contributions, deep and lasting satisfactions that can come only through service to others, and opportunities for community leadership that are unexcelled. This optimistic outlook for teaching is validated with facts, analyses of trends, and forecasts made by reputable authorities. All of this adds up to an invitation to teaching to able students.

The content and emphases of *Education and the Teacher* are indicated by its four major sections: Part One, The Importance of Teaching; Part Two, Choosing the Teaching Profession and Preparing for It; Part Three, The Work of the Teacher; and Part Four, The Profession of Teaching. Under each, chapters present comprehensive treatments of the factors, developments, accumulated facts and information, and

significant trends, as well as analyses of basic issues and problems that are pertinent to a knowledge and understanding of the topic. To provide a concise review of the material, as an aid to both students and the teacher, brief summaries are included at the end of each chapter. Selected reference lists are provided to enable the reader to extend his scholarship. These are drawn from challenging publications by distinguished scholars in various basic disciplines as well as from the applied field of education itself.

Indebtedness for assistance with the preparation of this book is acknowledged to numerous people, some by name and others who because of space limitations cannot be listed personally. Undergraduate students at Northwestern University, who have been enrolled in the author's introductory course to education, have offered valuable suggestions relative to the problems and content of interest to prospective teachers. In addition, ideas and ideals of former teachers, professional associates, and other respected educational leaders are reflected in this book.

Dean Lindley J. Stiles, advisory editor to Dodd, Mead, was a source of inspiration and encouragement and he made significant contributions to the development of the manuscript. The manuscript was also read by Dr. Jack Culbertson, Executive Director, The University Council for Educational Administration, and the proofs were read by Dr. T. M. Stinnett, Assistant Executive Secretary for Professional Development and Welfare, National Education Association; Dean Clayton M. Schindler, College of Education, Kent State University; Professor James R. Manwaring, School of Education, Syracuse University; and President Henry H. Hill, George Peabody College for Teachers. I absolve them, of course, of responsibility for any errors the book may contain, but I am most appreciative of their discerning criticism. For a schedule that included time for research and writing, gratefulness is expressed to Vice President Payson S. Wild and Dean E. T. McSwain of Northwestern University.

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B. J. CHANDLER

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PART ONE

**THE IMPORTANCE
OF TEACHING**

THE TEACHER AND SOCIETY

Teaching—the predecessor of all other professions—continues to be the mother profession. Essential to civilized enterprise as the chief source of man's intellectual, social, economic, and ethical development in every aspect of his life, teaching produces and nurtures the other professions. In a genuine sense, teaching always has been, is, and always will be the primary means of human progress and survival.

THE CHOICE OF TEACHING

The individual who chooses to become a teacher joins the highest ranks of professional service. He makes contributions of inestimable worth to the welfare of his fellow men and to the perpetuation of the ideals which bind men together in organized society. His choice places him among distinguished men and women, of every nation and historical period, who have found in teaching their highest achievement and fulfillment.

Some of the greatest people the world has known, regardless of their fields of interest or specialization, have paid tribute to the importance of teaching. Many have devoted their energies to actual teaching; others have given time and attention to other vital areas concerned with educating the young.

Horace Mann's philosophy of life was epitomized by his famous statement "Be afraid to die until you have won some victory for humanity." A successful lawyer early in life, he is remembered today as an educator. He gave up his law practice and resigned from the Massachusetts Senate, of which he was president, to devote his full time to work in the field of education. Thomas Jefferson, a man whose talents and interests encompassed several fields, founded the University of Virginia to be guided by ideas "based on the illimitable freedom of the human mind to explore and to

expose every subject susceptible of its contemplation." Comenius, a bishop of the Moravian Church, was a pioneer in modern educational methods. The Greek philosopher Socrates, while teaching the young men of Athens, developed a method of instruction which involved a series of eliciting questions that came to be known as the Socratic Method. The founder of the Christian religion, Jesus Christ, was called Teacher.

In current times some of the keenest minds have similarly been concerned with teaching, its impact on society, its contribution to the individual, and its value to scientific and industrial progress. Not infrequently does a noted political, military, business, or religious leader accept the presidency of a college or university to give expression to his desire to improve the benefits of teaching to young people. Often leaders in business and industrial organizations devote time and energy to raising funds for teachers' salary increases and improvements in other aspects of educational programs. Numerous busy and important citizens serve gratuitously on school boards and boards of trustees as their contributions to the process of education.

The Best Must Teach

In this space age—when educated intelligence is essential to progress in all fields and even, perhaps, to national survival—the best must teach. No longer can the choice of teaching be left, as Benjamin Franklin put it, "to some of the lesser sort." It goes without saying that teaching cannot be looked upon as employment suitable only for those who fail to gain admission to other professions.

Teaching must be the choice of increased numbers of our most able young people if the quality of intellectual and cultural development essential for individual attainment and national welfare is to be achieved. Because this is an age which demands intelligence, the world depends, more heavily than in any other period of history, upon the quality of the contributions teachers are able to make.

Distinction Between Professional and Lay Teaching

In a broad sense, everyone teaches. This fact makes it difficult for many to distinguish between the kind of teaching practiced by the

professional teacher and the kind carried on by lay people as an everyday concern. Parents speak of teaching their children; Boy and Girl Scout leaders teach the skills of scouting; teachers in Sunday schools teach lessons in religion; recreation leaders teach swimming and games; and children teach each other many things. None of these types of individuals possesses special preparation for teaching; yet they teach. On the other hand, one may read or hear appeals for greater numbers of well-qualified, professional teachers to staff schools. Many wonder why the lay teachers who do so well cannot be pressed into duty to relieve the schoolteacher shortage. In addition, the prospective teacher may feel that since he has been going to school most of his life, he is already acquainted with schools and teaching. If so, he well may ask "What do I need to study to become a teacher that I don't already know?"

How, then, does teaching in elementary and secondary schools differ from other types of teaching? The difference between lay teaching and professional teaching is comparable to the contrast between the recommendation of home remedies given by a layman for the sick and injured and the professional medical prescription and advice given by a doctor. The skilled layman may be able to administer first aid or even to suggest effective remedies for certain illnesses. He may occasionally save lives and contribute significantly to the better health of others. In contrast, the professional doctor brings to his practice years of scholarship, supervised training, and professional analysis that permit him to go far beyond the superficial health practices which the layman may employ.

The person who feels qualified to teach simply because he has spent several years in school is like the passenger who has traveled extensively by air and thinks his experience has qualified him to pilot a plane. If he has been observant, the passenger will have learned something about schedules, regulations, flight patterns, habits of passengers, and the care of the plane. Should he undertake to assume the captain's role, or even that of the copilot, without going through the necessary program of long and intensive preparation, he would at once discover the difference between flying as a passenger and taking charge of the flight.⁴ Of course, because failure as a pilot would result in immediate disaster, passengers are not permitted to make this transition from

lay status to professional practice; nor would many desire to do so. In teaching, unfortunately, the possible disastrous impact of unprepared laymen upon students is not so readily observable; consequently, professionally unprepared individuals frequently seek to step into the teacher's role without being aware of the damage they may do to the children they teach.

TEACHERS SERVE HUMANITY

Teachers serve humanity and leave impressions that help to shape the destiny of their society. To the young, they act as guides, examples and friends; their influence over individuals may be both significant and lasting. As they instruct individual children and youths, teachers are developing future statesmen, lawyers, doctors, ministers, scientists, technicians, laborers, white-collar workers, housewives, salesmen—every adult-to-be.

Numerous tributes to the importance of the work of teachers have been given. Louise Sharp assembled statements made by 120 celebrated men and women, each of whom had endeavored to describe the influence of teachers.¹ Helen Keller, the famous blind and deaf writer and world traveler, told about the teacher who had believed in her. Dr. Karl Menninger, psychiatrist and head of the famed Menninger Foundation, described the teacher's influence on the mental health of boys and girls, men and women. G. Bromley Oxnam, theologian and author, related how, in his opinion, teachers "shape the lives of their students and, more, determine the course of civilization." All the statements emphasized the immeasurable importance of teachers to individual students and to organized society.

Influence on the Individual Student

Practically every person has had at least one or more teachers who stand out in his memory as having profoundly influenced his life. The testimony of countless Americans could be cited to illustrate the various ways in which teachers have inspired, encouraged, challenged, prodded, or by other means caused individual students to aspire and climb to higher intellectual, spiritual, social or cultural heights. One typical description of the good teacher's

¹ D. Louise Sharp, ed., *Why Teach?* (New York: Henry Holt & Company, Inc., 1957).

influence on the individual is by Norman Cousins, editor of the *Saturday Review*.²

A good teacher is first of all a good human being—someone who in personality, character, and attitudes exercises a wholesome and inspiring influence on young people. . . . By inspiration I have in mind the quality of teaching that somehow strikes a spark deep inside the student, raising his level of awareness in life, enlarging rather than satisfying his natural curiosity, opening up a sense of individual capacity and responsibility, bolder up before the student an ideal worth pursuing and realizing as a person. The factual content of education may fall away from the individual over the years, or it may become obsolete; what is not lost, however, is the deep influence of a great inspiring teacher, someone whose general approach to knowledge and life serves as a practical guide for the individual in the world beyond the school.

By the time young people complete their formal education their system of values, attitudes toward learning, and aspirations are fairly well established. Teachers, along with parents and religious leaders, play important roles in helping each individual chart the direction of his life.

Influence on Society

In addition to helping young people achieve the highest possible level of self-realization, a goal that promotes personal success and happiness, the teacher assumes responsibility for helping individuals to become worthy and contributing members of their society. Through the efforts of teachers particular patterns of society are perpetuated and improved. They acquaint their students with the ideals, ethical values, cultural attainments, political doctrines, social customs, and economic principles that determine the character and quality of civilization.

Yehudi Menuhin, world-renowned violinist, has described the contributions of teachers to society as follows:³

Teachers have already become, and will continue to be, ever more essential and vital elements of our United States civilization. Gone are the romantic and lusty days of the purely self-made man. . . . Today

² *Ibid.*, pp. 30-31.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 158-160.

it is the tutored man, the one with the college degree who stands the better chance. Gone are the days when unbridled ambitions, appetites, and instincts could forge ahead, and when anything proved grist for the mill. Today in our civilization of abundance, selection and rejection must play an even greater part than indiscriminate assimilation. By this I mean rejection of all habits which impede, and selection of all those which promote, in advancing years, the inner peace, health, and enriching exchange with our fellow man, in other words, a useful social metabolism.

A vivid picture of the contributions to one society by a great teacher is presented in the inspiring and widely known book *Anna and the King of Siam*. The editor's introduction to the story of the almost unbelievable achievements of a true teacher summarize Anna's accomplishments.⁴

Anna Leonowens, the frail young English widow who went in the eighteen sixties as governess to the court of King Mongkut of Siam, was a real person, vivid and impelling, with very strong ideas about freedom, democracy and the rights of the individual. With these ideas she swept through the Palace and the harem like a clean breeze. Abraham Lincoln was her hero. One of her pupils, a discarded concubine of the King, was so stirred by *Uncle Tom's Cabin* that she translated it into Siamese with Anna's help and ever after signed her name "Harriet Beecher Stowe Son Klin." Son Klin freed all her slaves in a solemn and deeply touching ceremony. . . .

Besides teaching many of the King's concubines and his sixty-seven children, Anna helped the King with his foreign correspondence and took on many extracurricular duties, such as the handling of his famous birthday dinner and the preparation, in full regalia, of a half dozen pretty girls of the harem for presentation to Lord John Hay, so delightfully recounted in the book. But her most important achievement was to implant some of her own idealism in the heart and consciousness of the young prince who was to succeed his father. "Men cha," he said to her one day, "if I live to reign over Siam, I shall reign over a free and not an enslaved nation." True to his pledge, as King Chulalongkorn, Siam's greatest ruler, he abolished slavery and introduced many social and educational reforms.

While no teacher in the United States may individually exert on his own country, or on another nation, an influence exactly

⁴ Margaret D. Landon, *Anna and the King of Siam* (New York: The John Day Company, 1944), pp. ix-x.

corresponding to that of Anna Leonowens on Siam, members of the teaching profession do collectively constitute a significant moral and intellectual force on the future of their nation. As Henry Adams so wisely observed, "A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops."

Faith in the Process of Education

From the earliest recorded history, mankind has exemplified faith in the process of education. Plato observed that the unity of the state demanded "the guardians observe the one great point, as the saying is, the point being education." Aristotle wrote, in *Politics*, "Of all things that I have mentioned that which contributes most to the permanence of constitutions is the adaptation of education to the form of government."

Dedication to education in the United States. Leaders in the United States, from the time of the nation's founding to the present, have noted the importance of education to the nation. Every president, beginning with George Washington, has expressed profound faith in the power and necessity of good education. Examples of their dedication to the process of education illustrate the depth of their commitments.

In addition to the United States presidents, leaders from all walks of life have expressed faith in education. Mothers and fathers demonstrate their confidence in the value of schooling by the sacrifices they make to keep their children in school. No other nation has exhibited such extended and persistent faith that through education both the individual and society can be improved. Implicit in the universal support for education is the recognition of a cause-and-effect relationship between education and the realization and perpetuation of national ideals and values of life.

Investment of time and money in schools. Further evidence of the faith that people place in the processes of education is found in the extensive investments of time and money that are made in schools. Education is the major business in the United States if judged by the number of individuals actively engaged in it. Enrollment in elementary and secondary schools approximated 35 million in 1960. Projected enrollments, shown in Figure 1, indicate that the dramatic increase that has characterized enrollments

during the past decade will continue in the future.

The upswing in elementary and secondary enrollments has been accompanied by a similar increase in the number of students attending college. For example, about 3½ million students were enrolled in colleges and universities in 1960 but this number is expected to double by 1970. In addition, some 40 million people are actively participating in various formal and informal adult

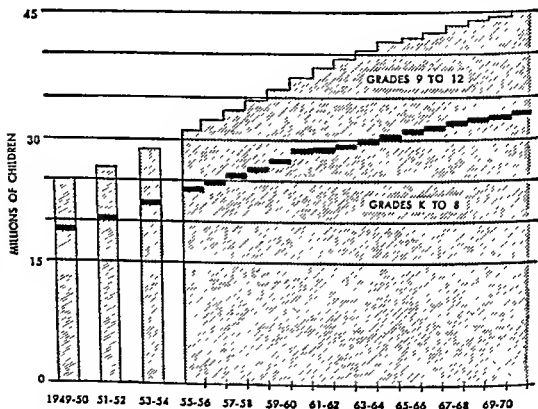


FIGURE 1.

INCREASING SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS

From *Children in a Changing World* (Washington, D.C.: Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1960), p. 75.

education programs. Teachers number 2 million, exclusive of part-time teachers and those employed in adult education programs.

About ¼ million citizens serve on school boards and boards of trustees. Membership in the National Congress of Parents and Teachers exceeds 11 million, indicating to some extent the number of parents who formally pledge themselves to work for education. Not included in these estimates are the personnel of various

business and industrial establishments whose work consists of producing materials, supplies, and equipment required in the field of education.

In terms of money invested, the United States spent over \$16 billion on its elementary and secondary schools at the beginning of the 1960's. Both the President's Science Advisory Committee and the Rockefeller report stated in the late 1950's that the investment made in education would need to be doubled within a decade. If this prognosis is correct, as it is likely to be, within the next few years more than \$32 billion annually will be invested in education.

Quite clearly, as evidenced by the time and money devoted to schools in the United States, people have faith in education. They believe that the individual can improve both himself and his society by the processes of instruction which teachers administer.

EDUCATION—THE ROAD TO THE "GOOD LIFE"

The faith that citizens of the United States hold in education rests substantially upon the premise that education is, in a free and democratic society, the road to the "good life" for all who care to pursue it. Learning holds forth promises of personal advancement—both vocational and economic—social improvement, and continuation of liberty; and for the individual these have more immediate appeal than do the rewards that learning offers for society as a whole.

The dividends that education yields to the individual are closely related to the value system of the society that creates and maintains schools. In the United States three basic democratic values are held before the individual—equality of educational opportunity, an open class system of society, and the enjoyment of personal liberty. In addition, people see the improvement of standards of living as a goal to which education contributes directly.

Equality of Educational Opportunity

A basic individual right in the United States is equality of educational opportunity. The "all men are created equal" clause of the Declaration of Independence is the basis for the belief that each citizen should be provided the opportunity, on an equal or fair

basis with every other citizen, to develop his abilities and talents to the maximum of his capacity.

This ideal of equality holds a number of implications for teachers. Paramount is the premise that no limitations may be set arbitrarily on the potentialities and possible attainments of any person. No artificial barriers may be erected to deter the development of individual talents and abilities. Not only are educational restrictions forbidden; the development of talents and capacities are encouraged, and provisions are made to keep the advantages of education open to all. The public school itself is conceived as the agency through which this objective is realized. Thus the ideal of equality of educational opportunity prevails to inspire each generation of citizens to provide an impartial, classless agency where all the children of all the people may receive educational opportunities commensurate with individual interests, abilities and choices.

Equality of educational opportunity is not to be confused with identical educational experience, as is very frequently done. For teachers and schools to attempt to provide each student, regardless of individual abilities or aptitudes, with identical training is to pervert the basic meaning of the concept of equality of educational opportunity.

Education and an Open Class System

An open or fluid class system prevails in the United States; consequently, transition from one social class to another is commonplace. The major vehicle for upward movement in the social system is education. In fact, the school is sometimes referred to as a social elevator because through education it is possible for a person to rise in the social structure. Some authorities maintain that socioeconomic status, a measurement which combines the social and economic benefits an individual enjoys, is determined largely by the amount of education a person has received.⁵ At any rate, education is regarded generally as an avenue to opportunity regardless of the level at which the individual starts.

A distinction should be made between an open class system and a "classless" society. The former prevails in the United States.

⁵ Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice L. Neugarten, *Society and Education* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1957).

Authoritative research reports dealing with the social structure and its effect upon education are presented in Chapter 4. At this point, however, it is noted that free public education helps to keep a class system open and fluid.

The school in an open class society plays an additional kind of role—that of social unifier. In the United States, every institution except the school tends to divide people. Churches separate citizens in accordance with denominational affiliation and nonmembership. Homes assort individuals by family groups. Businesses differentiate people by types of operation and job classifications. Public schools, on the other hand, except in a diminishing number of deviating situations, are open to boys and girls of all creeds, religious faiths, racial groups, types of homes, and economic levels. As a social unifier the school functions to hold class distinctions to a minimum; it helps people with differences to learn how to live and work together.

Education and Liberty

A few years ago, *Fortune* magazine published a special issue devoted to "The American Way of Life." The discussion started with the quest for words to explain a country. *La Belle France* is the phrase used by the Frenchman to eulogize his homeland. The British subject uses the slogan "There'll always be an England." But the American searches for an ideal or principle to describe the United States. The closest he has come to a satisfactory abstraction, say the editors of *Fortune*, is the word "Liberty."

Liberty, as an ideal, has tremendous power. Men have died in its name. Many are willing to risk economic destruction or social ostracism in defense of its cause. It stands as one of the unalienable rights referred to in the Declaration of Independence—"Life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

The promotion of liberty is a goal of education in the United States, and teachers are often called the guardians of this cherished birthright. The individual, regardless of his background or status, seeks, through his schooling, to guarantee that his personal liberty will be kept secure.

In promoting liberty, the school is expected to avoid indoctrination while teaching the methods of critical thinking. Each generation is expected to learn that liberty is not an eternal gift, but one

which must be won anew by all who would enjoy it. As John Stuart Mill once said, "The rights and interests of each or any person are only secure from being disregarded when the person interested is himself able and habitually disposed to stand up for them." One function of the school, and a fundamental responsibility of all who teach, is to instruct individuals to be "able and habitually disposed" to stand up for their rights and to accept the concomitant obligations that accompany liberty.

Education Improves Standards of Living

As integral to the "good life," Americans place value on high standards of living. The age of technology, with its new inventions, increased production of goods, and greatly expanded systems of distribution, has brought higher standards of living to millions of people. Education is the instrument by which the advancements in production and distribution have been attained. It also contributes to the individual's capacity to share in the benefits as they become available.

Education promotes economic advances. The complexities of manufacturing, mining, and farming demand workers with increasingly higher levels of skill and knowledge. Thus the reciprocal relationship between the continuing economic expansion and the work of schools is apparent. In fact, education has made possible phenomenal advances in all fields—agriculture, commerce, engineering, business, health, and politics.

While advances in general fields are made possible through education, one should not overlook the fact that education also leads to economic advancement for the individual. It is possible for young people to achieve higher status and better-paying jobs than their fathers hold. There appears to be a relationship between the amount and quality of education and the income earned by individuals. This relationship is depicted in Figure 2.

An increasingly complex society with a rapidly developing technology will reward those who possess knowledge and the ability to apply it. Education, therefore, is likely to correlate in the future even more closely with economic success.

Relationship between education and standard of living. The correlation between literacy and per capita income of a nation is quite high. The relationship is so close, in fact, that if the literacy

rate of a country is known the level of income can be predicted fairly accurately. Even though nations possess many similarities as well as variations in climate, topography, and natural resources, the single factor that tends to be constantly related to per capita income is the level of literacy of the people. This fact emphasizes the importance of the quality and extensiveness of educational opportunities to the people of a country.

The high position with respect to per capita income of the United States compared to other countries is due to the quality

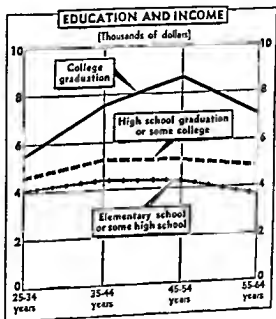


FIGURE 2.

EDUCATION AND INCOME

From *The New York Times* (January 3, 1960), p. E9.

and general provision for education throughout the nation. Similar evidence of the relationship of quality of education to standards of living is found in the differences which prevail within the United States from state to state and region to region. For example, the per capita incomes of New York and California exceed those of other states such as North Dakota and Nebraska. A major cause of the disparity in the per capita income is found in the fact that both New York and California make significantly greater expenditures, on a per pupil basis, for educational purposes

than do the other two states.

These examples are but a small part of the compelling evidence that attests to the fact that the quality and extent of education influence significantly the standards of living of people. Consequently, if progress is to be maintained in the United States in extending improved standards of living to greater numbers of people, improvements in the amount and quality of education provided for all must be achieved.

EDUCATION DEVELOPS THE MORAL MAN

A parallel responsibility to that of promoting the "good life" for the individual, and one to which education and teachers make significant contributions, is the broader morality of man's relationship to his fellowmen. Throughout the ages, education has been seen as an instrument for producing citizens adapted to particular patterns of group life. The social traits to which education has contributed include both broad moral and spiritual values which bind men together and guide their interactions and the more specific behaviors involved in the practice of political and social citizenship.

In the United States, for example, as Toynbee has pointed out, the value system is built on beliefs and ideals derived from Jewish and Christian teachings. It is natural, therefore, that schools should be expected to teach certain moral and spiritual values related to the Hebrew-Christian heritage. The tenets of democracy that have prevailed in this country assert that man is to be respected and assimilated into citizenship responsibilities regardless of his race, color, or creed. Implied is the necessity of reconciling the system of moral and spiritual values with operational premises by which free men and democratic self-government live.

Moral and Spiritual Values

Moral values are defined by the National Education Association as "the traits and attitudes which bring about socially accepted behavior. [Spiritual values] include the high mystical experience of organized religious groups—a realm in which the public schools cannot operate. Spiritual values also include appreciation of the place of religion in human life, and the ethical, aesthetic, and emotional experiences that help to elevate and liberate the human

spirit. This is the realm in which the public schools can participate."⁶

Efforts to teach moral and spiritual values in the public schools have increased significantly during the past few years. This trend has paralleled the rising interest in religion and the active participation in organized religions evidenced in the United States during and following World War II. While general agreement exists that schools should be concerned with moral and spiritual values, the content and methods for such programs provoke sharp controversy.

The position on the question of content to which a majority of the educators in the United States would subscribe was stated by the Educational Policies Commission, a body which represents both the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. According to the Commission, public schools should emphasize the following moral and spiritual values:⁷ (1) human personality—the basic value, (2) moral responsibility, (3) institutions as the servants of men, (4) common consent, (5) devotion to truth, (6) respect for excellence, (7) moral equality, (8) brotherhood, (9) pursuit of happiness, and (10) spiritual enrichment.

Separation of Church and State

A myth often heard is that our forefathers who colonized North America were in search of religious freedom. They were, for themselves, but not for those who did not share their particular religion. History of the New World shows that the early settlers merely perpetuated the bitter religious quarrels they intended to leave behind in Europe. Slowly, it became evident that certain human rights had to be respected by all. Among these was the privilege of religious liberty. The framers of the Constitution of the United States made freedom of religious worship explicit by providing for the separation of church and state. This subject is dealt with extensively in Chapter 3.

Our religious heritage is reflected in the teaching of moral and

⁶ National Education Association, Research Division, "Ten Criticisms of Public Education," *Research Bulletin*, XXXV (December, 1957), p. 168.

⁷ Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951), pp. 18-19.

spiritual principles on which general agreement prevails. The Bible may be taught as literature and history when reference to denominational precepts is avoided. The intent is to protect the schools from the conflict which would result if various faiths were permitted to solicit the curriculum of the schools as a vehicle for disseminating particular denominational commitments.

PROMOTION OF DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

A new type of government—one that was idigenous to America—was developed through and after the Revolutionary War. The ideal of self-government, even in rudimentary form, was a daring and radical objective when the Constitution of the United States was framed. Such a government, the forefathers realized, demanded an educated citizenry, and they affirmed that the “means of education shall be forever encouraged.” Thus, schools were visualized as a necessary arm of the political enterprise.

Today, citizenship is broadly defined. It includes the whole realm of citizens’ activities, associations, and day-to-day relationships as well as the legal and governmental aspects of citizenship, such as voting and serving on juries. Implicit in a broad definition of citizenship in a democracy are several fundamental ideas. Among them are (1) the belief that man is unique and worthy of respect simply because he is a human being; (2) the conviction that man is capable of governing himself; and (3) the assumption that justice will prevail in a free society.

The relationship between education and citizenship demands that schools strive to attain specific goals. Students must develop the ability to do reflective thinking. Individuals must know how to keep informed on complex political and social issues, and they must be willing to do so. The ability to obtain and weigh evidence as a prelude to the making of decisions must be developed. Whole-some human relationships are imperative. Each individual should become imbued with a sense of responsibility for his own freedom. Young people must learn that nonparticipation in government exacts penalties, for as Plato said in his *Republic*, “The punishment of wise men who refuse to take part in government is to live under the government of unwise men.”

To accomplish the over-all goal of preparing people for citizenship, schools help pupils to acquire and practice skills and be-

havior demanded of good citizens. Many school activities have as one of their purposes the preparation of youth for responsibilities inherent in self-government. Student councils, clubs, class officers, teacher-pupil planning, and athletics are but a few examples of school activities through which pupils acquire experience in participating in the development and execution of plans that affect their destiny.

The school's responsibility for helping to prepare youth for citizenship is rooted firmly in social and political philosophy that enjoys almost universal approbation. The essence of the philosophy is that public schools, as an arm of the state, should help to equip people with the skills and the knowledge demanded of citizens. As Benjamin Franklin once noted: "We must have a system of public education; its purpose must be to educate our people in their public duties."

EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC PROGRESS

Two major achievements of science are good examples of the relationship between education and scientific progress. First, through science man has learned and is learning to control his environment. Second, it has been found that complex social problems will yield to scientific inquiry.

Scientific Advancement Depends on Education

Spectacular advancements in the field of science are recorded almost daily. Jet engines have been developed that can deliver 15,000 horsepower in a single motor. The liquid-fuel rocket produces 750,000 horsepower. One ton of atomic fuel has a potential of 30 billion horsepower hours. Polio can be prevented through use of Salk vaccine. Miracle drugs can often cure once-fatal diseases. The human life span continues to increase dramatically. It is axiomatic that these dramatic achievements would not have been possible without education.

The public schools contribute to scientific advancement in various ways. They prepare students to follow science programs in colleges and universities. The study of science in high school often results in an interest in the subject which leads many talented young people to choose teaching as a career. As the general educational level of the population increases, scientists are encour-

aged to discover new knowledge through research and experimentation.

Teachers Employ Scientific Method

The use of the scientific method for the promotion of social well-being is one of the great challenges facing civilization. The Harvard Report of 1945, *General Education in a Free Society*, made this point clear: "The question at bottom is whether the scientific attitude is in truth applicable to the full horizon of life, and on this question there is, to say the least, uncertainty."

Nevertheless, teaching draws heavily upon the scientific method. It employs the methods of observation, reflection, test, and restatement, and it avoids conclusions unsupported by evidence. Good teaching fosters and encourages ideas which are looked upon as hypotheses to be tested, rather than as dogmas to be stated, memorized, and defended.

It has been said that the real scientific revolution is yet to come. The true revolution will come, some believe, when the scientific method is habitually used when dealing with social problems. The schools of America are the instruments for bringing about this scientific revolution.

SUMMARY

Teaching, the mother profession, is recognized as the primary means of human progress and survival. Those who choose to teach join the ranks of great men and women who, throughout the ages, have seen in teaching and education one of man's great endeavors. In these times, when educated intelligence is indispensable, there is urgent need for the most able young people to choose to teach. Such a choice implies a period of rigorous, sustained preparation for professional practice.

The fundamental importance of teaching is found in the service provided to humanity. Teachers often exert lasting influences on young people as evidenced by the tributes paid them by noted leaders in all walks of life. Not only do teachers influence individual students, they make contributions to the social, economic, political, scientific, and moral life of their society.

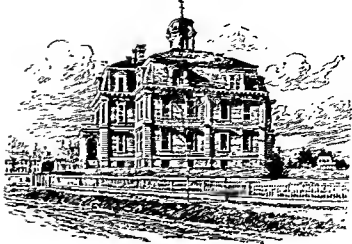
The people of the United States have a profound faith in the process of education. National leaders, including all presidents,



Every president, beginning with George Washington, has expressed profound faith in the power and necessity of good education (see page 9).

George Washington: "Promote then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion be enlightened." Thomas Jefferson: "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization it expects what never was and never will be." Abraham Lincoln: "Upon the subject of education, not presuming to dictate any play or system respecting it, I can only say that I view it as the most important subject which we as a people can be engaged in." Woodrow Wilson: "Without popular education no government which rests on popular action can long endure." Franklin D. Roosevelt: "Our ultimate security, to a large extent, is based upon the individual's character, information, and attitude, and the responsibility rests squarely upon those who direct education in America." Dwight D. Eisenhower: "Because our schools help the mind and character of our youth, the strength or weakness of our educational system will go far to determine the strength or weakness of our national morality tomorrow." John F. Kennedy: "'Knowledge is power,' said Francis Bacon, it is also light. In the days ahead, our youth shall need all the light the teaching profession can bring to bear upon the future."

(Photographs courtesy of [1] The New York Public Library, [2] The New York Historical Society, [3 and 4] Library of Congress, [5] Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, [6] United Press International, and [7] The White House.)



Evidence of the faith that people place in the processes of education is found in the extensive investments of time and money that are made in schools (see page 9). These pictures show the evolution of a schoolhouse in Newton, Massachusetts, in line with the growth in population and the changing concepts in school buildings. Above, the original Mason School, 1852-1901; left, the second Mason School, 1901-1959; below, the Mason-Rice School, 1959. (Photos courtesy of the Public Schools, Newton, Massachusetts.)



have attested to the importance of education in a free society dedicated to self-government. Not only is education our largest business when judged by the number of people involved annually, it commands substantial financial support and the time and energies of perhaps two-thirds or more of the national population.

Two fundamental ideals are held by the American people for education. One pertains to the contributions that schools and teachers make to helping each individual achieve the "good life." Attainment of this goal requires the provision of equal educational opportunities, the maintenance of an open class system to which public schools make significant contributions, the perpetuation of individual liberty, and the improvement of standards of living for all. The other ideal relates to education's contribution to the moral man. The maintenance of moral and spiritual values compatible with the nature of the society and the development of the functional skills, habits, attitudes, and knowledges by which citizenship is exercised comprise the two major emphases projected by this objective. In the latter aspect, schools serve as an arm of the political enterprise.

Scientific advances are dependent upon education. Schools prepare students to live in a world of science and help some to specialize in scientific study and research. Teachers, through experimentation and research, advance the bounds of human knowledge. They, also, rely upon the scientific method in the process of teaching itself.

Education and teachers are facing today a challenge of crucial importance. Liberty must be preserved and vitalized. Individual happiness and advancement as well as national survival depend upon continued progress in social, scientific, and political fields. The teacher is the key force for promoting individual development and the progress in all fields essential to national strength and well-being.

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HOW AND WHY AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS DEVELOPED

Public schools and other institutions of man are shaped by myriad forces. Sometimes the forces are direct and discernible, but often they are subtle and obscure.

Searching for cause-and-effect relationships between the type of school and the curriculum maintained at any given time and the major social, economic, political, and religious influences of the time is a challenging intellectual experience. For example, what was the relationship between the common school development during the first half of the nineteenth century and the Jacksonian democracy of that age? How did the social class structure of Prussia in the early 1800's help to bring about the establishment of public normal schools in the United States? To gain an understanding of the forces that have influenced American public schools, one must study the history of education in relationship to the parallel developments in such fields as politics, economics, business, industry, labor, agriculture, sociology, religion, and the total philosophy of democracy as a way of life.

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the reader to the historical ideas, trends, and events that have influenced schools. Emphasis is placed upon significant developments rather than on a chronological tabulation of details. Cause-and-effect relationships are identified. Ideas and conditions that thwart or promote educational change are noted.

The major periods in the historical development of American schools are summarized in capsule form to present an overview of the key stages and their discernible characteristics.

HISTORICAL PERIODS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS

The Colonial Period (1607-1770)

Education was dominated by theological, social, and political orthodoxies. The goals of education were based on religion. Schools reflected

the British culture; education was aristocratic and private. Secondary and higher education was exclusively classical and humanistic. Many colonists were interested in education.

Decline of Interest in Education (1770-1800)

Educational opportunity remained very unequal. The Revolution occupied the time and interest of people to such an extent that schools were seriously neglected. Industrial developments and westward expansion of the population following the Revolution caused further neglect of the schools. The curriculum was still largely classical and humanistic.

Establishment of State Schools (1800-1860)

Public schools as creatures of the state were established throughout the country. The school tax won acceptance. Free education for all became an accepted principle. Through the work of Horace Mann and others "practical" subjects were introduced into the curriculum. The high school was established in several cities and a few wealthy rural areas. Over 200 colleges and universities were founded. America had become education-conscious.

Era of New Philosophies (1860-1918)

A "new education," child centered, challenged the traditional curriculum. The ideas of Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel exerted strong influence over American schools. The ideal of free education for all successfully withstood vigorous attack. There was a growing demand for more practical secondary education. Some of America's outstanding philosophers turned their attention to the school.

The Modern Period (1918-)

Kindergartens are commonplace in most states in the country. Members of the non-Caucasian races and children with various types of handicaps are now embraced by public schools. The comprehensive high school has largely replaced the strictly college-preparatory institution. Higher education is available to all. Teaching has been established as a profession. Schools are financed from funds from local, state and federal sources.

POLITICAL AND RELIGIOUS CONFLICTS IN EUROPE INFLUENCED EDUCATION IN COLONIAL AMERICA

A prolonged battle for political power characterized the period prior to the colonization of North America. The national state, at

least in rudimentary form, emerged in England and France in the sixteenth century. Centralized political authority was exercised more and more by strong monarchs and less by the nobles who wielded power under the decadent system of feudalism. Some of the kings of England, particularly Henry VIII, aided commerce and industry, thereby winning support from the new and increasingly powerful merchant classes. Simultaneously, the influence of the old landed aristocracy declined. Courts of law responsible to the central political authority, the King, were established. The supremacy of ecclesiastical rulers was successfully challenged by civil rulers.

These struggles for power are important to educational history because they influenced the outcome of bitter political battles that were fought over the control of schools. The conflict which reached a peak during the Renaissance was finally resolved in favor of civil authorities in most countries. Thus the groundwork was laid for state control of schools in the United States.

Economic and political struggles were accompanied by a series of religious revolts against the established church. Lutheranism was embraced by many in northern Europe. Western Europe was the scene of revolts led by Calvinists. Anglicanism and Puritanism gained favor in England. Protestantism broke the rule of the Catholic church in the sixteenth century.

The significance of the religious conflicts is twofold. First, the stage was set for the development of school systems indigenous to each nation. Second, successful revolts against the Catholic church made rebellion against both civil and ecclesiastical authorities feasible at a later date. Oppression from either political or religious sources was no longer considered normative. The American Revolution is a case in point. The Revolution made it possible for creative people to innovate in many fields, one of which was education.

EDUCATION IN COLONIAL AMERICA (1607-1770)

In organization and purpose, the first schools in America were counterparts of schools in Europe. The system tended to be dual in character inasmuch as different schools were provided for the upper and lower social classes. Because of religious motives, the colonists wanted rudimentary education for the common folk.

But the study of classical languages, philosophy, and similar esoteric subjects was reserved for boys who attended exclusive schools.

A major difference in the schools of colonial America and those of Europe was in the method of instruction. In Europe, instruction was largely oral with little emphasis upon reading. Since one major purpose of early American schools was to enable men and women to study the Bible and be able to read civil edicts, it was inevitable that reading should have been emphasized.

The importance of education in the minds of the colonists was evidenced by the fact that schools were established in townships almost as soon as communities became permanent. Boston, for example, was hardly organized as a township when, in 1635, the leaders established a school. The General Court of Massachusetts issued a compulsory education ordinance for the townships of the state as early as 1647. The ordinance (which came to be known as the Old Deluder Satan Law¹) attempted to insure universal literacy by requiring the towns to establish schools. It demonstrated the early influence of religion upon education.

Schools in New England

The development of schools in colonial America occurred with the greatest speed in the North, with the colonies of Massachusetts and Connecticut leading the way. Various factors account for the early educational leadership of these states. First, the colonists who settled in New England were, largely, religious refugees. Extensive preoccupation with religion in their daily lives promoted interest in education as a means of studying the Word of God. Laws were enacted in an effort to achieve this aim.² However, organized religion restricted as well as promoted the advancement of education. The teaching of such subjects as art, music, secular literature, and some of the sciences, considered frivolities by most church officials, was often forbidden.

Important as it was, the religious motive was only one reason

¹ Called the Old Deluder Satan Law because in the preamble a statement was made to the effect that people had to read the Bible as a protection from Satan.

² 1634, 1638—Taxation laws for support of free public schools. 1642—Massachusetts' first general education law, "The Learning and Labor Law" (partly an apprenticeship endeavor). 1647—Massachusetts' second general education law, compulsory establishment of schools.

for the establishment of schools. The political welfare of the commonwealth demanded that children be provided schooling. Then, too, children had to learn a trade if they were to be productive members of a colony. Thus, political and economic as well as religious motives caused early settlers to establish schools.

Schools in the Middle Colonies

In the Middle Colonies the compulsory school system, with tax support, was not so popular as it was in New England. The existence in this area of numerous religious groups was the principal reason for the difference. Inasmuch as no one denomination predominated, each sought to develop its own system of church-supported schools. Parochial schools provided sufficient schooling for children of upper-class families to deter the development of public schools. Church schools were, however, subject to political authority. They operated under specific grants of power either from the king, proprietor of the colony, or the colonial legislature.

Rather extensive heterogeneity characterized the population in the Middle Colonies. The variety of religious faiths that prevailed was due largely to the tradition of toleration initiated by the Dutch West India Company. Many small farmers, artisans, sailors, and indentured servants as well as landed aristocrats and wealthy merchants lived in New York. More so than in New England, various national groups were represented. The proprietary system that prevailed in New Jersey after 1664 attracted a variety of religious and social types. Pennsylvania was settled by the Quakers who practiced toleration. Consequently, they were joined by Lutherans, Pietists, Dunkards, Mennonites, and other religious groups.

The diversity in nationality, social values, economic standing, and religion of the people who lived in the Middle Colonies tended to retard the development of public schools for all. However, a fundamental tradition of state authority over education was established and made possible the development of public school systems at a later date.

Schools in the South

The economic life of the South, based upon the plantation system, resulted in sparse population, few towns of any size, and a distinct

class system of planters, working classes, and slaves. Such a situation deterred the development of a system of free public schools. The planter aristocracy and economic conditions tended to prevent the rise of a middle class, which was the group that promoted interest in schools and sought to establish a system of free public education.

Religious authority was as centralized in the old South as was political and economic power. In Virginia, Maryland, the Carolinas, and Georgia, the Church of England was an official church under colonial laws. Education of the masses was not essential for religious worship. Therefore, the zeal for education as a prerequisite for effective participation in religious activities that was displayed by the New England settlers was not present to an appreciable extent in the South.

The aristocratic segment of the Southern population, which was at the top of the social, economic, religious, and political structure of the ante-bellum South, developed the practice of employing private tutors for their own children. Many young men were sent to England to finish their education. Members of the ruling class had little or no interest in supporting public schools, and an individual's political influence was generally equivalent to his financial standing.

Civil authorities did establish some schools, which were primarily vocational in nature. A pattern of poor laws and the apprenticeship system was the example for this practice. Apprenticeship schools were provided free of charge for poor children, orphans, and illegitimate children. The free schools were controlled by civil government officials, but they co-operated with ecclesiastical authorities. Nevertheless, it is significant that the principle of state control of education, though not nearly so pronounced as it was in New England, was firmly established.

Basic Guides to Educational Policy

Out of these early efforts to establish public schools, agreements and practices emerged and projected six basic principles that prevail today as guides to educational policy:³ (1) The govern-

³ R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, *A History of Education in American Culture* (New York: Henry Holt & Company, Inc., 1953), pp. 103-104; R. Freeman Butts, "Search for Freedom—The Story of American Education," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 3 (March, 1960), pp. 33-48.

ment may require children to get a minimum education; (2) The state may require local governments to establish schools; (3) Control of schools is vested in the civil government; (4) Tax funds can be used for the support of schools; (5) The separation of church and state is recognized; and (6) The district system is the adopted pattern for administering schools. Some of these principles were in rudimentary form during the colonial period, but all were clearly discernible.

During the colonial period the people pursued their various interests—fighting the Indians, struggling to earn a living, discharging their religious duties, and establishing a permanent home which would make for more gracious living and greater prosperity for future generations. Public education in broad outline was established, but it still faced *many serious obstacles*.

DECLINE OF EMPHASIS ON EDUCATION (1770-1800)

As the colonies grew and expanded with increasing immigration and successful colonization, other interests and problems tended to push the concern for education into the background. The Industrial Revolution, spreading in Europe, affected the progress and direction of life in the colonies in the New World. In its wake, thousands of unemployed Europeans came to America to seek a new living, bringing with them high hopes for the industrial possibilities of their new land. Industrial developments ultimately brought wealth both in terms of population and money. Each resource was indispensable to the new country.

Industrialization Adversely Affected Schools

Industrialization affected adversely, at least for a time, the progress of education in America. The development of universal education was slowed by the practice of employing young children to work in shops and factories. Child workers were from lower-class immigrant families whose educational backgrounds were meager. Even though schooling might have served as an avenue for advancement for their children, these new Americans were so poor that education, even in free public schools, was a luxury. Furthermore, the over-all effect of the industrial movement was to produce slums in which aspirations were discouraged by the oppressiveness of the environment.

Thus, as colonial America was becoming richer economically and more potent in its productive power, it was unable to give full attention to the problems of providing educationally for its future generations. At the same time, slums, child labor, the need for better-trained workers, and an economy of growing complexity all contributed to the development of social problems that only better education could solve.

Westward Expansion Made Establishment of Schools Difficult

The mobility of settlers who continued to push westward into undeveloped areas made the establishment of permanent schools difficult if not impossible. The pioneers were less interested in formal education than in the practical business of staying alive. Teachers were scarce in newly opened territories, and the population was spread so thinly over large areas that it was not feasible to establish schools.

Revolutionary War Absorbed Time and Interest of People

Relations with England during the latter part of the eighteenth century absorbed much of the time and energy of the colonists. The minds of America's great leaders—men such as George Washington, Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams, John Adams, Thomas Jefferson, and Benjamin Franklin—were devoted to the establishment of a new government. Consequently, education was neglected temporarily. Furthermore, the turmoil of the Revolutionary War and subsequent political conflicts so challenged the interests of people that education was largely ignored by the masses as well as the leaders. Also, the economic resources of the people were exhausted by the Revolutionary War and the struggle to establish a new system of government.

Major Educational Developments from 1770 to 1800

While there was a decline in emphasis upon education during and immediately after the Revolution, several developments were to have important influences on education in the years to come.

The academy which had first been established in 1751 as a protest against the classical, college-preparatory Latin grammar

school continued to be adopted by communities. This trend accentuated the importance of universal education, particularly when it prepared, as Franklin put it, "*for the important business of living.*" Not only did the academy emphasize—along with classical studies—preparation for life, it admitted girls as well as boys. This new type of secondary school, which was to serve a new nation until the middle of the nineteenth century, was supported by tax funds as well as by private grants.

The influence of teachers received recognition, albeit in a backhanded manner. Prior to the Revolution teachers were required to pledge allegiance to the Crown and Parliament of England. During and immediately after the war, oaths of allegiance to the new states were required of teachers, thus indirectly calling attention to the importance of the influence of teachers to the nation.

To the Constitution adopted for the new nation two amendments were added which were of far-reaching importance to education. The First Amendment legally established the principle of separation of church and state for the entire nation. Education as an arm of the state was made subject to civil authority. The Tenth Amendment provided that ". . . the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, or prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." Under this residual powers clause, education became a state and local function. As a direct result of this amendment, a large degree of local autonomy for schools has prevailed, thereby making the United States unique in this respect. Whether the Founding Fathers deliberately omitted provisions dealing with schools and left this matter to states and the people or inadvertently failed to deal explicitly with control of education has been a debatable question. One thing is sure, however, the principles of separation of church and state and the control of education exercised at the state and local levels have proved *highly* satisfactory in practice.

Despite the decline of emphasis on education from 1770 to 1800, progress toward the development of schools was recorded. Sixteen states had adopted constitutional provisions for schools by 1800. Interest in founding schools is indicated by articles on education in some of the early state constitutions. Good examples are Pennsylvania (1776), North Carolina (1776), Georgia (1777 and 1778), Massachusetts (1780), New Hampshire (1784), and Ver-

mont (1793). Typical is the 1776 Constitution of Pennsylvania which directed the legislature to "establish a school or schools . . . in each county of the state." Further, it required that "all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities."

ESTABLISHMENT OF STATE SCHOOLS (1800-1860)

A quickening of interest in schools was evident in the early 1800's. While several states provided for the establishment and maintenance of a system of free public schools in constitutions adopted before 1800, state systems were actually a product of the nineteenth century.

Free public education for all was in harmony with the philosophy that elevated the common man to political, social, and economic power, and the ideals of equal educational opportunity and universal education gained favor in the United States. The cornerstone of educational democracy was the principle that children were to be admitted to public schools free and without regard to social or economic status.

Factors Which Promoted Public Education

The extension and improvement of public education was enhanced by (1) the federal government's encouragement of schools, (2) the action of far-seeing leaders, (3) the development of the political philosophy of self-government, (4) the establishment of universities, (5) the urbanization of population, and (6) the growth of economic ability of the United States.

Support for education by federal policy began as early as 1787 with the adoption of the Northwest Ordinance. This law provided that one section of land be reserved for school purposes within each township of the newly acquired Northwest territory. The pertinent section of the Ordinance read: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." From 1787 to the present, the national government has encouraged and supported education.

Education in the United States received support during the early years of the nineteenth century from able and influential leaders. The lasting impact of these key men upon American edu-

cation can be illustrated with brief descriptions of the contributions of a few.

Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) emphasized a new liberalism in his day that envisaged the perfectibility of man. Many historians say that Jefferson did more than any other single individual to determine the democratic nature of American life. He believed implicitly in the "common man," a concept that had many ramifications. An important cornerstone of this faith in the individual is the conviction that man was created to govern himself. To govern himself, man must be educated. Jefferson authored the first legislative act for the establishment of a state system of free public schools. The proposed legislation, "A Bill for the More General Diffusion of Knowledge," was introduced in the Virginia General Assembly in 1779. Further evidence of his interest in education is the fact that he founded the University of Virginia in 1819 in the face of bitter opposition from religious groups who looked with general disfavor on the establishment of state universities. Jefferson insisted that science, history, law, political economy, and modern languages be taught in addition to the classics and philosophy.

Horace Mann (1796-1859) is credited with being the father of public education. Like Jefferson, Mann started out in politics, having been elected to the House of Representatives in Massachusetts in 1827. He was the moving force in the legislature that enacted statutes establishing a state board of education and a compulsory school attendance law. Other major accomplishments of Horace Mann were the establishment of the first normal school (in Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839), the founding of Antioch College at Yellow Springs, Ohio, and the authorship of numerous publications dealing with education, including the famous annual reports he made as secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education. He was a champion of free public education whose vision and convictions were matched by his unstinting efforts to extend the benefits of education to all.

Henry Barnard (1811-1900), the first United States Commissioner of Education, was a lawyer by training. Upon his return from two years of study of education in Europe, he was elected to the Connecticut legislature. His efforts as a legislator resulted in the establishment of the Connecticut State Board of Education,

and he became its first secretary. Later he served as commissioner of education in Rhode Island, president of the University of Wisconsin, and president of St. John's College, Annapolis. He was the founder of the *American Journal of Education*, one of the early professional periodicals. The 52-volume *Library of Education*, which he authored, stimulated many improvements in public education. Both Barnard and Mann successfully welded local units into a state system of public schools; Barnard in Connecticut and Rhode Island, and Mann in Massachusetts.

Numerous others made significant contributions to the development of education. DeWitt Clinton, promoter of the Erie Canal and Governor of New York, helped to establish a system of free schools in his state. James G. Carter of Massachusetts originated the lyceum movement which anticipated modern adult education. Josiah Holbrook of Connecticut worked with Horace Mann to establish public schools. A wealthy merchant, George Peabody, founded the Peabody Education Fund and the Peabody Institute. Education as a means for overcoming poverty was championed by Robert Coram in Delaware. Noah Webster authored the famous *Blue-Backed Speller* and other textbooks. The efforts and talents of these leaders, and many others, gave impetus to the establishment and improvement of schools.

Increasing democratization characterized the period from 1800 to 1860. The epitome of the increased liberalism in the political realm was Jacksonian democracy. This movement brought about a new electorate. The common man was enfranchised by constitutions of the new Western states and revisions of the constitutions of states already in the union. Property qualifications for voting were dropped in many states. The increasing democratization gave impetus to the establishment of free, tax-supported schools, open to all regardless of social or economic status. Education for the masses instead of education for the classes was consistent with democratic concepts that were being implemented in the political realm.

Numerous colleges and universities were established between 1800 and 1860. At the turn of the century, only 26 colleges existed in the United States; by 1860, as many as 255 were in operation. Although some of the new institutions were church-supported, others were representative of the new type of state universities

which were being established by state legislatures. Admission policies of colleges and universities, programs of research and public service, and general cultural and intellectual leadership in higher education contributed also to the development of elementary and secondary schools.

The growth of cities between 1800 and 1860 promoted interest in and support for public education. By 1860 there were 24 cities in the eight Eastern Seaboard states with 20,000 or more inhabitants. Nine inland cities had a combined population of over 800,000. The urbanization and industrialization trends influenced the development of schools in at least three ways. First, people lived sufficiently close together for group instruction to be feasible. Second, new occupations were demanding new skills and a better education. Third, as production of goods increased and methods of distribution improved, more and better education for all was necessary if people were to buy more goods and enjoy a higher standard of living.

Economic ability of the country grew considerably as the nation expanded into the rich undeveloped lands of the West. A system of currency and banking was stabilized. The Industrial Revolution kept money in circulation despite panics and periodic depressions. The standard of living increased. Commerce and industry were well established. Economic improvement had a reciprocal relationship with the further development of schools. Each helped to nurture the other.

Major Educational Developments from 1800 to 1860

Increasing democratization and the development of scientific interests created demands for an expansion of the program of studies offered in schools. A broader curriculum was necessary if pupils were to be prepared for "the ordinary duties of life." The study of geography, government, and history was endorsed on the assumption that it would prepare students for citizenship. Physical training, drawing, and natural science were accepted as necessary for the common education of all. Of course, reading, writing, and arithmetic still constituted the heart of the curriculum in the elementary schools.

The public high school had made its appearance in the first part of the nineteenth century, the first having been established

in Boston in 1823. This new school, first called the "English classical high school," offered competition to the academy which reached its peak in the middle 1800's with more than a quarter of a million students enrolled in 6,000 academies.

Already visible were the characteristics that were to make the comprehensive high school an integral part of the common school system. For instance, a board composed of local citizens controlled the high school. Tuition charges were gradually eliminated. Public high school graduates were admitted to colleges. The stigma that had formerly been attached to free public schools was on the wane. Although only a few hundred were operating in 1860, the public high school was an established institution.

Functional education was demanded more and more in the public schools. The demands came from leading lay people rather than educators. Many advocated the teaching of moral values outside their religious context. As early as 1820 vocational education was being recommended. While the traditional aims of education still dominated American schools at the time of the War Between the States, innovations were beginning to receive a more favorable bearing.

The period from 1800 to 1860 was one of substantial advancement for public education. The unique principle of free, tax-supported schools from first grade through college was firmly established. Future generations had only to take advantage of the structure and pattern that had been conceived and developed in rudimentary form.

ERA OF NEW PHILOSOPHIES OF EDUCATION (1860-1918)

Schools reflect the society they serve; consequently, as the society and needs of a nation change, so must the schools. The latter part of the nineteenth century saw major changes in the character and thinking of American society.

Changes Occurred in Philosophy

A profound intellectual revolution occurred in the United States between 1860 and 1918. For example, there was serious questioning of the supernatural explanation of the universe that held earth and man to have been created at a specific moment and to have

changed little since their creation. Naturalistic explanations of evolution of the cosmos and man were advanced by Charles Darwin in his *Origin of Species*, published in 1859. The evolutionary thesis advanced by Darwin was applied to social institutions and individuals, and some social scientists concluded that in the economic and political world of capitalism only the fittest survived. The intellectual revolution set in motion many conflicting and competing schools of thought.

Between 1860 and 1918 three major philosophies were of paramount importance—idealism, classical humanism, and pragmatism. These philosophies profoundly influenced the schools. Idealism contended that the essence of the universe was spiritual rather than material. Idealism was combined with traditional faculty psychology by some leading educators to produce a new philosophy known as classical humanism. The humanists scorned the sciences, social sciences, and vocational subjects. They reasoned that a student could really learn only if his tasks were hard and unpleasant.

The theory of pragmatism, indigenous to America, came into being in the late nineteenth century. According to this philosophy, truth is found through experimental testing of theories and ideas. Emphasis is placed upon change, and uncertainty is the price of free inquiry. Learning is viewed as unique to each situation being influenced both by the psychological nature of individuals and the social nature of their environment.⁴

European Influences Were Felt in America

In the latter half of the nineteenth century, America was to feel the impact of several theories concerning education which had been advanced by Europeans in the first half of the century. Among those who heralded some of the modern theories was Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827), a Swiss educator and a pioneer in the use of psychology in education whose philosophy showed the influence of the French philosopher and author Rousseau. Pestalozzi stressed the relationship between the "head, hand and heart" to explain his belief that the human organism has three

⁴ The student who is interested in the conception of knowledge, education, and reality of each major philosophy may find such information in Joe Park, *Selected Readings in the Philosophy of Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1958).

distinct aspects: the intellectual, the physical, and the moral or religious. These work in harmony with each other, and each must receive due emphasis or the organism cannot develop in a normal way. He advocated following nature's way in the belief that learning is a process of an unfolding of the mind; and he looked on the teacher as the gardener, or cultivator.

His greatest contribution probably was his emphasis on sense perception, of which he wrote: "The most essential point from which I start is this: sense impression of Nature is the only foundation of human instruction, because it is the only true foundation of human knowledge." In this respect Pestalozzi was one of the pioneers in the psychology of education. He was the first educator to make systematic observations of child growth, the first to conceive the idea of organic education, and a pioneer in the association of learning with experience.

While Pestalozzi lived and worked several years before the period under discussion, his influence was not really felt in the United States until after 1860. His teachings were disseminated by the Oswego Normal School, which was established in 1865. This school was instrumental in spreading the teachings of Pestalozzi throughout the United States.

The German educator, Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776-1841), was another European whose philosophy found sympathetic audiences in the United States. His final aim in education was the formation of character or the moral development of the individual, the achievement of which depended upon the interest of the learner. His methods were systematic, but not routine, and he, too, saw a need for modification of method according to the nature and the experience of the learner.

The doctrine of *apperception*—the interpretation of new knowledge by knowledge already possessed—is credited to Herbart. His teaching was "many-sided" in that he attempted to get his students to apply facts and information to many different types of situations. The mainspring of success was interest of the learner.

Friedrich Froebel (1782-1852), another German educator, represented the transcendentalists and centered his philosophies around the concept of a Divine Unity. For him the aim of education was to guide a child into the realization of the harmony exist-

ing between himself and the universe and the aspects of that universe. His interests lay mainly in the area of early childhood. He influenced the present-day emphasis on the activities curriculum and the importance of self-expression. Perhaps his most lasting contribution to education was the introduction of the kindergarten into the school plan. He developed a theory of teaching preschool children in his kindergarten (child garden) that is still followed in modified form.

Influential Americans Affected Schools

Between 1860 and 1918 many great minds grappled with problems in the field of education. G. Stanley Hall developed his theory of genetic psychology. John Dewey, William James, and C. S. Pierce pioneered the philosophy of pragmatism. They were concerned about the dualism between polar concepts such as values and facts, ends and means, and mind and matter that perplexed many educators. Charles W. Eliot, John Hope, Charles H. Judd, Francis W. Parker, Edward Lee Thorndike, Booker T. Washington, and Frances E. Willard along with numerous other intellectuals shaped educational theory and practice.

Volumes have been written detailing contributions made to education by scholars from various fields during the era characterized by new philosophies. The reader who wishes to extend his knowledge of educational leaders between 1860 and 1918 can profitably consult such publications as *John Dewey: Master Educator* by William W. Brickman and Stanley Lehrer, published by the Society for the Advancement of Education in 1959; *Selected Readings in the Philosophy of Education* by Joe Park, published by the Macmillan Company in 1958; and any of the current history of education books. It will have to suffice here to select a few leaders and briefly indicate the nature of their work for purposes of illustration.

William James (1842-1910) did much to improve the status of psychology. He, along with John Dewey and C. S. Pierce, originated the philosophy of pragmatism. His famous *Principles of Psychology* was published in 1890. As a professor at Harvard he taught anatomy but later switched to psychology and philosophy. His writings provided the basis for many of the practices that came to be known as progressive education.

G. Stanley Hall (1844–1924), first president of Clark University, contributed to education the theory of genetic psychology. He pioneered in the world of psychic phenomena and developed the theory that mental and physical life are always parallel. Included in his many articles and books are discussions of education at all levels—nursery, kindergarten, primary, elementary, secondary, and higher. He believed that teaching methods had to be adapted to the subject, the age level of the learner, and the dominant psychology of the specific era.

John Dewey (1859–1952) is regarded by many as the foremost educational thinker America has produced. By profession, he was a philosopher. But no other philosopher has devoted his talents to education to the extent that John Dewey did. Active for 60 years, he wrote many articles and books on educational philosophy.

Dewey's theory of pragmatism or experimentalism was, according to him, a Copernican revolution in educational philosophy. Whether the contention is accurate or not cannot be said, but his teachings have provoked severe condemnation from some quarters and extreme loyalties from others.

Dewey thought of education as a social process. The basis for his belief grew from a conception of learning as a process that involved phenomena such as nature, experience, and mind. He favored problem solving as an educational method because he conceived of thinking as problem solving. Democracy with its unique values provided the framework to which the school and everything that happened in it should be closely related. Throughout his lifetime Dewey sought to apply philosophical analysis to education.

One of Dewey's major concerns was the utilization of critical inquiry in all problematic situations. It is this concern that identifies Dewey with the scientific method in education—the method which emphasizes that intelligence may operate upon all types of subject matter and situations and that through intelligence man orders means to “ends-in-view.” Use of the scientific method permits the individual to predict, observe, describe, test, evaluate, and draw conclusions.

Dewey's ideas, real or ascribed, were the basis for many of the practices that were labeled “Progressive Education.” This label has lost whatever meaning it once had and now means whatever

the person using it wants it to mean. According to distinguished scholars: *

The original Dewey-inspired educational movement was distinctive because it deliberately reflected scientific and democratic developments in our culture and because it projected broad outlines for an educational program designed to confront what was envisaged as the tasks and opportunities of a civilization.

The reference to the Dewey-inspired movement is to the Progressive Education Association. Although this organization was not founded during the period under discussion, it is germane because of the connection between Dewey and what is labeled as progressive education. The Progressive Education Association was a genuine and needed reform movement in education. Excessive formalism in the classroom, rote memorization, and standardization were abuses that concerned many thoughtful teachers and laymen, to say nothing of the students involved. The Progressive Education Association reflected a growing understanding of individual differences, interest, and motivation as factors that influenced learning as well as the place of experience in learning.

Another organization inspired by the work of Dewey is the John Dewey Society which has been an active force in American education since its founding in 1927. Throughout its history, the Society's membership has included some of the nation's most distinguished educators. Scholarly yearbooks that deal with important social, educational, and political questions are published by the Society.

Education Received Increasing Governmental Support

Between 1860 and 1918 the government assumed an expanded role in promoting education. Its support was influential in a financial way, and it also gave education much needed prestige. The importance of the Morrill Act of 1862, for instance, was not only that it established a fund for training of a vocational type, but that it made higher education available to a wider range of individuals many of whom were not attracted to less functional programs of collegiate education. The growth of land-grant col-

* Joe Burnett, Hobert W. Burns, Nathaniel L. Champlin, Otto Krash, Frederick C. Neff, and Francis T. Villemain, "Dewey and Creative Education," *Saturday Review* (November 21, 1959), p. 19.

leges throughout the country also brought educational facilities closer to the actual population centers, especially in the West.

Governmental support of another type aided education during this period. Compulsory attendance laws had been enacted in 32 states by 1900, and in all of the states by 1920. These laws helped to cause the number of pupils in schools to increase dramatically.

Significant Educational Developments Took Place

Elementary education expanded considerably between 1860 and 1918. Kindergartens were beginning to be made a part of the public school systems, thereby pushing the age for school entrance downward. Morals, hygiene, drawing, natural science, physiology, music, and physical culture joined the basic subjects of grammar, literature, history, geography, and arithmetic in the elementary school curriculum.

Two developments that affected high schools should be noted. First, the American public high school won its legal right to life in the famous *Kalamazoo* case. This milestone in the development of the high school occurred in 1874. The *Kalamazoo* case established the legal principle that civil authorities had a right to maintain secondary schools and levy taxes for their support.

The second development of importance concerned the purposes of the secondary school. Some claimed that the function of the high school was only to prepare students for colleges; a second group wanted it to prepare people for life; and others advocated vocational or specialized education. Such conflicts led the National Education Association to appoint the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, which reported in 1893, and the Committee of Thirteen on College Entrance Requirements, in 1895. A principal responsibility of both committees was to define the college preparatory curriculum. Such action was needed at that time because of the trend toward broadening the secondary school program and the growing popularity of the elective system. The interest in practical subjects and in general preparation for citizenship was forcing the high school to become more comprehensive in scope and purposes.

Several general characteristics of the period from 1860-1918 were important to education. Social, economic, and political forces were changing rapidly to keep abreast of a growing complexity of business and industrial life. European scholars were projecting

theories about learning and education that appealed to people in a new nation who were attempting to develop an educational program to serve a wide range of individual abilities. In the United States itself, educational leaders of stature, were setting the stage for the development of the most universal program of education the world has ever known.

MODERN PERIOD (1918–PRESENT)

The growth of universal public education received a significant blueprint in 1918 from a report of the Secondary School Principals' Association of the National Education Association. This definition of functions for the high school, which came to be known as the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education (see page 127), gave direction to the development of a comprehensive secondary school program which would (1) prepare for citizenship, (2) prepare for college, (3) develop marketable skills, and (4) prepare for life. The dream of education for all, through high school, was beginning to come true.

As might be expected, the modern period is one of strong interest in education, experimentation, expansion of both enrollments and program emphases, growing nationalism, and concern for weaknesses that were discovered as the importance of education to the nation became more generally recognized.

Leadership by Professional Educators

The rapid expansion of education during the past 40 years has been accomplished largely under the leadership of professional educators—individuals who through training and experience, as well as their employment, devote their full attention to the study and leadership of education. Included in this classification are professors in colleges and universities, officials in state departments of public instruction, career people in professional teachers' associations, teachers, administrators, and supervisory officials in public schools.

The professional educator has been produced in the United States as a result of several factors. First of all, subject matter specialists in colleges who were the early leaders of educational programs in elementary and secondary schools receded from their responsibility as education became more universal in character. In fact, it took men like Horace Mann and Henry Barnard, both

lawyers who worked through the political machinery of state governments, to advance the cause of public education in its initial state. Later, college professors such as G. Stanley Hall, William James, and John Dewey, who were originally trained in the academic disciplines, devoted their attention to the study of education as an applied field.

A second factor was the growing knowledge about the processes of education that resulted from the application of the scientific method to the study of public education and its problems. Dealing with education in a scholarly manner required both the time and specialization of leaders. The complexity of education—particularly of public education which attempted to provide programs adapted to the abilities, ambitions and interests of the total child and youth population—discouraged the leadership of laymen and college professors from academic fields.

Recent years have brought attempts to reinterest college professors from the academic fields in the preparation of teachers as well as in the total work of elementary and secondary schools. The objective is to provide education with the total resources for leadership of all who have knowledges and skills to help improve the direction and processes of schools.

Promotion of Education by the Federal Government

In recognition of the vital importance of education to the process of self-government; to progress in business, industry, agriculture, and all other fields; as well as to the provisions for military protection; representatives of the people have repeatedly assigned financial resources available at the federal level to phases of education. Federal assistance has typically been provided for programs which have been neglected or ignored by state and local authorities. Examples of such national participation to strengthen education in particular areas include:

1. Support for work in agriculture and home economics, provided by the Smith-Lever Act in 1914.
2. Provision of aid for vocational education by the Smith-Hughes Act and the establishment of the Federal Board of Vocational Education in 1917.
3. Provision in 1933 of a federally managed program of informal vocational training as an integral aspect of the Civilian Conserva-

tion Corps for youth out-of-school and out-of-work during the depression years.

4. Extension of work opportunities for college students through the organization of the National Youth Administration in 1935.

5. Creation of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act, in 1944, popularly known as the "GI Bill of Rights" to provide assistance to veterans for continuing educational preparation.

6. The provision of assistance, through the National Defense Education Act of 1958, to the improvement of education in certain fields that are judged to be essential to national security—for example, science, foreign language, guidance, and educational television.

In addition to the specific acts by Congress to provide support for phases of educational development, two important "White House Conferences"—one in 1951 called by President Truman, the second in 1955, called by President Eisenhower—have helped to chart the course for education in the United States.

Support for Education from Philanthropic Foundations

Private schools have long existed on the benevolence of patrons who contributed to their support individually or through organized associations. In recent years philanthropic foundations have given assistance to public education also. Funds from foundations have made possible research or the development of programs that have not as yet commanded support from tax resources.

About 1,000 educational funds or foundations have now been established. Examples of major ones are briefly described:

1. The W. K. Kellogg Foundation was established with the purpose of promoting "the health, education and welfare of mankind, but principally of children and youth . . . without regard to sex, race, creed or nationality." The well-known Co-operative Program in Educational Administration, developed to improve school administration, was financed by a grant from the Kellogg Foundation.

2. The Ford Foundation, a giant among foundations, was established to promote scientific, educational, and charitable activities through studies and research.

3. The Rockefeller Foundation was established with the purpose of promoting the welfare of mankind throughout the world.

4. The Carnegie Corporation of New York endeavors to advance knowledge and understanding through higher education, public and international affairs.

5. The George Peabody Foundation, the forerunner of the modern educational foundation, provided funds for the betterment of education in the South.

Individual assets of these and other leading foundations are presented in Chapter 4. Over-all assets of foundations exceed two billion dollars. Their influence on education by the areas they support and encourage may be so potent as to determine the direction for the future. As a result, many educators would like to see careful appraisal of research and projects financed by foundations.⁶

Two World Wars Exposed Educational Deficiencies

In both world wars, education received new and dramatic impetus. Selective Service examinations revealed that American boys by the hundreds of thousands were mentally and/or physically unfit for military service. Subsequent studies confirmed hunches that there was a cause-and-effect relationship between amount and quality of education and the fitness of young men for military service. This fact encouraged the realization that education is actually the front line of national defense.

New Political and Social Philosophies Won Acceptance

In the 1930's the philosophy of "rugged individualism" gave way to the theories of the New Deal which stressed group security and governmental planning to protect the well-being of individuals. The New Deal extended supervision by the government to the economic life of the nation. While a "planned economy" seemed to be implicit in the new philosophy, the profit system and private ownership of the means of production were maintained. The federal government entered numerous new fields, ranging in diversity, for example, from security to power development, flood control, banking, and purchase of surplus farm products.

Naturally, the schools reflected the new political and social philosophies. Citizenship education attracted more attention. Vo-

⁶ See William W. Brickman, "Foundations, Funds and Education," *School and Society*, Vol. 87, No. 2150, (March 28, 1959), pp. 155-156.

cational objectives achieved a new prominence. The school increasingly came to be looked upon as an ally of the state.

Abandonment of Isolationism in Foreign Policy

Since World War II, the United States has assumed greater leadership for international developments, particularly for the free world. This expanded relationship with other nations gives visibility to various aspects of national life, including education. Other countries whose common people are moving toward greater freedom see in the public schools of the United States a model for their own educational development. At the same time, Americans are making comparisons with foreign educational systems to ascertain whether their emphasis on quality, for selected good students, can be adapted to fit a system of universal education. Out of the exchange of information about education, the mutual concern that is developing for improving education throughout the world, particularly in underdeveloped nations, a world-wide organization of the teaching profession has been founded. Its purpose is to unite the efforts of teachers of different countries in the interest of education and teaching as a profession.

Bigness Affected Schools

Bigness came to be a characteristic of American life during the twentieth century. Outstanding examples include complex business corporations (such as General Motors), giant labor unions (AFL, CIO), big military organizations, big political parties, and big government. The trend toward bigness has also touched schools. The size of school districts has increased yearly as the number of school districts declined. High schools with 3,500 to 4,000 students are now commonplace. Of even more importance to education are the complexity of social policy and of the processes for education's development which are occasioned by bigness. The power structure has become both complex and obscure. Consequently, it is extremely difficult to know how decisions affecting schools are being made.

The Home and Other Institutions Changed

As changes take place in the home, church, and other institutions, new expectations for the schools cause modifications in educa-

tional programs. Somewhat on the facetious side, but containing a good deal of truth, is a cartoon that appeared in newspapers recently. It depicts a PTA meeting in progress. A lady intent upon criticizing the schools and blaming them for "lack of discipline" said: "Obviously, there's something wrong with the school . . . My child's in the third grade and from his behavior you'd never know he'd been outside the home." Divorce and family separation are quite common today. Also, one out of three mothers is employed. Most families live in urban areas. These changes have affected schools; they have forced on schools responsibilities that once belonged to the home or some other institution.

Legal Segregation of Races Ended

Compulsory segregation in public schools that is based upon race was rendered unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court in May of 1954. The legal decision against segregation has placed an added burden upon the schools to improve intercultural relations throughout the nation. This obligation may be looked upon as an opportunity to strengthen democracy; yet in some communities it has caused difficulty.

Scientific Developments

On December 2, 1942, United States scientists first released the energy of the atom. This discovery made possible the development of the atomic bomb which shocked the world with its demonstrated power to exert explosive force. The new source of power heralded a new age of science and technology. Machines are replacing men on the assembly lines, in offices, and on the farms. The increased knowledge necessary to develop, maintain, and operate mechanical and electronic slaves places greater emphasis upon education and the quality of teaching in schools.

The tremendous advances in transportation, communication, rocket and satellite missiles, as well as in the fields of automation, attest to the successes already achieved by education in the United States. They indicate, also, the added responsibility that schools must assume if the quality of education is to be kept abreast of the requirements of an age when trained intelligence is essential for both individual success and national survival.

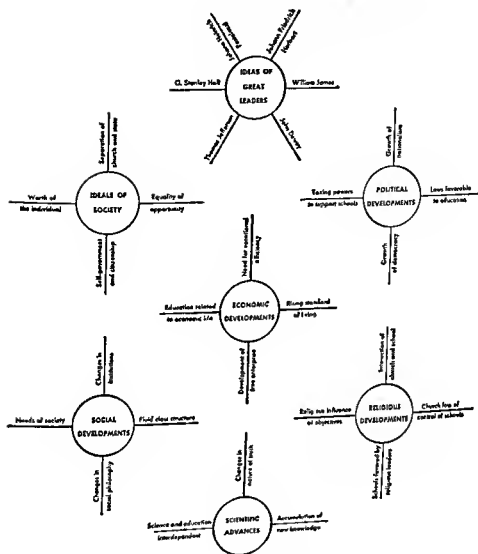


FIGURE 3.
RECURRING THEMES IN THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

RECURRING THEMES

Various themes echo from the glimpses of educational history that have been presented. These ideas, developments, and social actions are represented graphically in Figure 3.

How and why did schools develop? Forces noted in Figure 3 were met by education throughout the years. And, like Ulysses, the social institution known as a school is part of all that it has met.

SUMMARY

The student of education studies the past in order to understand better the present and to predict the future. The antecedents of many educational issues are to be found in history. It is logical and helpful, therefore, for the student of education to be a student of history.

In colonial days, schools were primarily for the upper classes although the colonists wanted rudimentary education for the common folk. Ability to read the Bible and civil documents was thought necessary for all citizens. Education controlled by civil authorities was considered important, and consequently schools were established almost immediately by new townships. The development of schools occurred with the greatest speed in New England, with the colonies of Massachusetts and Connecticut leading the way.

Emphasis on education declined between 1770 and 1800. The settlers' time and attention were occupied with more pressing matters. Industrialization was beginning to develop. New westward settlements were being made frequently. The Revolution took priority over all other interests for a while. Some educational progress was recorded, however. The United States Constitution, adopted during this period, set the stage for the development of education as a state and local function. Teachers began to be recognized as influential persons.

The American school system assumed its present characteristics in the years between 1800 and 1860. The principle of free public education for all won legal and social acceptance. The schools were beginning to be charged with the responsibility of preparing people for citizenship. New courses, such as the social studies and sciences, were incorporated into the curriculum. The outline of the educational ladder—elementary schools, high schools, and state universities—was visible.

The period from 1860 to 1918 has been characterized as an era of new philosophies which resulted from a profound intellectual revolution that was in progress. Idealism fairly well replaced transcendentalism as the prevailing philosophy. In turn, classical humanism and pragmatism won favor with many.

The influence of leading educators was felt by American schools.

Among the great European educators who made an impact on American education were Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel. In the United States William James, G. Stanley Hall, John Dewey, and other leaders influenced education.

During the era of new philosophies several significant educational developments occurred. Enrollments in elementary schools increased dramatically. The curriculum of the elementary school expanded to include such subjects as morals, hygiene, drawing, music, physical culture, and natural science. In secondary education, the public high school won its legal right to exist through the famous Kalamazoo case in 1874. Disputes over the purposes of the high school foretold the comprehensive high school.

The modern period, 1918 to the present, has seen tremendous expansion and diversification of schools. Trends and forces that help to account for educational developments may be stated as follows: strong leadership has been exerted by able educators; the federal government has promoted schools; wealthy foundations have encouraged education; two world wars exposed educational deficiencies; new political and social philosophies won acceptance; isolationism in foreign policy was abandoned; bigness made its impact; the home and other institutions changed; legal racial segregation ended; and rapid advancements were made in the scientific field. Clearly, the public school system in the United States has, on the one hand, reflected the society that maintained it; on the other hand it has obviously made an impact on that society. Such is the reciprocal relationship of schools and society.

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Words of four Syllables.

Ac-com pa-ny	Accompany
Be-ne vo-lence	Benevolence
Ce-re-mo-ny	Ceremony
Dis-con-tent-ed	Discontented
Ever-last-ing	Everlasting
Fid-e-li-ty	Fidelity
Glo-ri-fy-ing	Glorifying
Hu-mi-li-ty	Humility
In-fi-mi-ty	Infirmity.

Words of five Syllables.

Ad mi-ra-ti-on	Admiration
Be-ne-fi-ci-al	Beneficial
Con-so-la-ti-on	Consolation
De-cla-ra-ti-on	Declaration
Ex-hor-ta-ti-on	Exhortation
For-ni-ca-ti-on	Fornication
Ge-ne-ra-ti-on	Generation
Ha-bi-ta-ti-on	Habitation
In-vi-ta-ti-on	Invitation

A		In Adam's Fall We Sinned all.
B		Tly Life to Mend Tis Back Ande.
C		The Cat doth play And after Day.
D		A Dog will bite A Thief at night.
E		An Eagle flighs It out of sight.
F		The Idle Fool Is whipt at School.

A major purpose of early American schools was to enable men and women to study the Bible and to be able to read civil edicts (see page 26). The *New England Primer* (1727, above), emphasized the moral and religious aspects of reading. Below, the schoolmaster of the eighteenth century as depicted by the American historical artist, Howard Pyle. The picture shows a Delaware classroom in the 1790's conducted by William Cobbett. One boy recites his lesson, another eats an apple behind his slate, a third boy obviously has a toothache, while another stands in a corner wearing a dunce's cap (All illustrations courtesy of the New York Public Library.)



A colonial wooden hornbook or "battledore."



ABOVE: Winslow Homer's "The Country School," painted in 1871, is one of his many valuable illustrations of nineteenth-century American life. The one-room school is presided over by the school mistress in black dress and white apron. (Collection City Art Museum of St. Louis.)

BELOW: Edwin Austin Abbey's 1877 illustration of a teacher being interviewed by members of the school board. Teachers of this era had a type of "example status" thrust upon them by restrictions such as those summarized on pages 335-336. At left: A title-page vignette from Leavitt's *Easy Lessons*, 1847, shows teacher and students on the way to a country school. (Two illustrations, courtesy of The New York Public Library.)



IMPACT OF CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES ON PUBLIC EDUCATION

This has been called an age of anxiety and conflict. Actually in a free society every age merits such a description. Democracy itself has been described as a form of institutionalized conflict. In a nation where men are free to think, to express their convictions, and to share in the process of self-government, controversy is essential to progress.

Education, since it deals with values, is characterized by perpetual conflict. Serious differences of opinion exist, for example, as to the role of religion in the public schools. Disagreements are caused by the status and future of federal participation in the financial support of schools. Controversies about academic freedom arise continually. Much discussion and acrimony, particularly in recent years, have been caused by the practice of discrimination and segregation of races in schools.

Teachers often confront controversial issues in the classroom. They have to deal with them in a manner that is satisfactory to pupils, parents, and educational authorities, as well as to themselves as professional people. The good teacher habitually keeps himself informed on the pros and cons of controversial subjects. He develops an objectivity and detachment, toward even virulent issues, that enable him to teach pupils to resolve conflicts and disagreements in a constructive fashion. A few current issues have been selected to illustrate how teachers may use the analytical approach to study controversial questions.¹

RELIGION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

A single sentence of the First Amendment to the Constitution has aroused deep controversy in the United States. It reads: "Congress

¹ For a comprehensive and scholarly treatment of critical issues in education, see V. T. Thayer, *The Role of the School in American Society* (New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 315-520.

shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof." The interpretation of this constitutional provision affects vitally the entire educational system in all its forms—public, private, and parochial—from kindergarten through the university.

Those who are familiar with the historical background of the problem are acquainted with the reasons the Founding Fathers established the principle of separation of church and state. In the experience of early settlers, religion had been a deeply divisive influence. Church and state had been bitter rivals. European wars had resulted from theological differences or from competition between church and state. Persecution inflicted in the name of religion had been common in the nations from which the colonists had migrated.

What Is Meant by the Term "Teaching of Religion"?

People often encounter a problem in semantics when they try to discuss the issue of religion in the public schools. Misunderstanding usually centers around the phrase, "teaching of religion." For purposes of this discussion, teaching of religion means *to transmit the accepted dogmas, doctrines, and creeds of a religious denomination or sect for the purpose of influencing the pupil to accept such teachings as truth and to act accordingly.*

An obvious difference exists between *teaching of religion* and *teaching about religion*. It would be practically impossible to teach history, literature, and other cultural subjects without considering religion and its influence.² But that is teaching about religion. The subject under consideration here is that of the teaching of religion, as herein defined, in the public schools and not the teaching about religion that is an inherent part of the teacher's work.

Arguments for Teaching of Religion in Public Schools

Those who advocate the teaching of religion in the public schools offer a variety of arguments in support of their position. Included in their arguments are the following points:

² See Msgr. Raymond J. Gallagher, Rabbi Marc H. Tanenbaum, and Rev. William J. Villame, "The Place of Religion in American Life," in Eli Ginzberg, ed., *The Nation's Children*, Vol. 1, *The Family and Social Change*, White House Conference on Children and Youth (New York: Columbia University Press, 1960), pp. 209-228.

Teaching of religion in the public schools promotes understanding between Protestants, Catholics, Jews, and other groups. As pupils learn the history and traditions of the various religious groups, their feelings of brotherhood and good will toward these groups is enhanced.

Time does not permit adequate religious instruction outside the public school. It is difficult for pupils to find time for religious instruction after the close of the school day. Therefore, the public schools should devote some time to the teaching of religion.

Parents are not qualified to teach religion. Many parents have neither the time nor the necessary education to instruct their children in religion. The public schools have trained teachers. They should teach religion to the pupils.

The failure to teach religion in the public schools creates a negative impression. When religion is ignored or not taught in the schools it is assumed by the pupils that it is not important. A detrimental attitude toward religious instruction is thus promoted.

The Constitution does not mean what the Supreme Court says it means. The principle of separation of church and state means that neither should control the other. However, this meaning does not exclude the teaching of religion in the public schools.

Man has moral needs that are based upon religious teachings. One must teach about God to be able to inculcate values and truth in pupils.

Arguments Against Teaching of Religion in Public Schools

Those who oppose the teaching of religion in the public schools buttress their position with these arguments:

The teaching of religion in the public schools, regardless of the method employed, is a violation of the legal principle of separation of church and state. The Supreme Court has stated in unequivocal terms that teaching religion in public schools is unconstitutional.^{}*

Hundreds of denominations and sects exist in the United States. If one wanted to teach religion in the schools, would he use Science and Health, the Koran, or the Book of Mormon? In discussions confined to the Bible, shall it be the Old or New Testament; which version, the King James, Standard Revised, or Douay translation?

^{*} See *Illinois ex rel. McCollum v. Board of Education*, 333 U.S. 203 (1949).

Religion cannot be studied objectively in the public schools. To do so would necessitate critical scrutiny of religious beliefs and practices of various sects. This type of criticism would evoke bitter responses from adult members of the community who belong to the offended religious groups.

Public school teachers are not prepared to teach religion. Each teacher has his own religion, or no religion, but his professional teacher education program did not include preparation for the teaching of religion.

Religion is taught by indoctrination. The public schools are dedicated to free inquiry. Therefore, the methods employed in teaching religion and other public school subjects would be incompatible.

The public school is the only institution that is not divisive in our society. Other institutions cause people to be placed in separate categories. For example, the people of a community attend different churches. The home divides people according to family relationships. The public schools bring people of all races, all creeds, and all religions together.

Teaching religion is the responsibility of the church and the home. It is an admission of a desire to default in a basic responsibility when the church and home attempt to shove off the teaching of religion onto the public schools. If parents and church officials want religion taught, they should teach it.

The public school curriculum doesn't have room for the teaching of religion. There is hardly enough time in the day now for all the courses and activities that the schools are responsible for providing. The educational program could not be expanded to provide for the teaching of religion.

Views of Some Major Church Groups

A comprehensive discussion of the position taken on the question of teaching religion in the public schools by all the major religious groups is not possible here. Therefore, only the following brief summaries of the views of three major groups—Protestant, Catholic and Jewish—are presented. In order to minimize errors of interpretation, authoritative statements from each group are presented. Two facts should be kept in mind when reading the material that follows. First, not all denominations in the Protestant group subscribe to the position as described here. Second, many

individuals in each of the three groups may differ with the position attributed to the religious group with which they are affiliated.

Protestant

We defend the right of all religious groups to carry on church-related education at any level, elementary, secondary, or higher, and the right of parents to send their children to those schools if they so desire. But while we defend the right we do not believe it should be widely exercised at the elementary and secondary levels. . . . We repeat that we are committed to the public schools.

We believe that the public school has a responsibility with respect to the religious foundations of our national culture. It can declare, as the state itself declares, that the nation subsists under the governance of God and that it is not morally autonomous. It can acknowledge, furthermore, that human, ethical, and moral values have their ground and sanction in God.

The school can do much in teaching about religion, in adequately affirming that religion has been and is an essential factor in our cultural heritage. . . .⁴

Catholic

The education of all (Roman) Catholics from their childhood must be such that not only shall they be taught nothing contrary to the (Roman) Catholic faith and good morals, but religious and moral training shall occupy the principal place in the curriculum . . . (Canon 1372)

(Roman) Catholic children shall not attend non-Catholic or denominational schools nor schools that are mixed (that is to say, open also to non-Catholics). The bishop of the diocese alone has the right, in harmony with the instructions of the Holy See, to decide under what circumstances, and with what safeguards against perversion, the attendance of such schools by (Roman) Catholic children may be tolerated. (Canon 1374)⁵

Jewish

The public schools should maintain complete impartiality in the realm of religion. They should never undermine the faith of any child,

⁴ National Education Association, "Churches and the Public Schools: An Interview with William C. Martin, president, National Council of the Churches of Christ," *NEA Journal*, XLIII (May, 1954), p. 292.

⁵ Rev. Stanislaus Woywod, *A Practical Commentary on the Code of Canon Law*. With a Preface by Rt. Rev. Msgr. P. Bernardini. Two volumes. (New York: J. F. Wagner, Inc., 1925), Vol. 2, pp. 117 and 239 b.

nor question the absence of religious belief in any child.

While the will of the majority governs in a democratic society, American tradition does not make this rule applicable to matters of religion.

Teachers should not undertake religious instruction in the schools.

Children of every shade of religious opinion should enjoy complete equality in the classroom. Thus, whether the child be Protestant in a predominantly Catholic community, Catholic in a predominantly Protestant community, or Jewish in a predominantly Christian community, he should be on an equal footing with all his schoolmates. Moreover, students with no formal religious training, as well as those who do not accept religious viewpoints, must stand as equals of their religiously-educated, observing schoolmates.

Pertinent references to religion, even to doctrinal differences, whenever intrinsic to the lesson at hand, should be included in the teaching of history, the social studies, literature, art and other subjects. Great care must be taken to insure that the teacher's religious identification or absence thereof does not color his instruction. Where discussion of doctrine is not relevant to an understanding of subject matter, the teacher should refer the children to home, church or synagogue for interpretations.⁶

Court Decisions Regarding Religion in Public Schools

The more important court decisions regarding the teaching of religion in the public schools have left many questions unanswered. It is not possible to speak categorically about the legality of various religious exercises in the public schools because of the many conflicting judicial rulings. A brief summary is therefore presented to illustrate the important court cases relative to: employment of public school teachers who wear distinctive religious vestments; scheduling of religious exercises for pupils during the school day in school buildings; and released-time programs of religious education.

Teachers and religious vestments. The wearing of religious dress by public school teachers was upheld by a Pennsylvania Court in 1894.⁷ The following year, however, the legislature passed a law forbidding public school teachers to wear "any dress, mark, emblem, or insignia indicating the fact that such teacher is a member of any religious order, sect, or denomination."⁸ In 1906 a court in

⁶ "Religion in Public Education," A Statement of Views by the American Jewish Committee, Revised, April 1957.

⁷ *Hysong v. School District*, 30 Atl. 492 (Pa. 1891).

⁸ Purdon's Penn. Stat. Ann., sec. 24-11-1112.

New York upheld a ruling by the state superintendent which forbade public school teachers to wear religious dress.⁹ A North Dakota court approved the wearing of religious habit by public school teachers in a decision in 1936.¹⁰ However, a statute was passed in 1949 in North Dakota that prohibits public school teachers from wearing religious vestments.

Use of prayers, hymns, and the Bible. With regard to using prayers, hymns, and Bible readings in school the courts have handed down a variety of opinions. The Louisiana courts ruled that repeating the Lord's Prayer and reading passages from the New Testament violated the state's constitution.¹¹ However, the reciting of the Lord's Prayer was upheld by the courts in Texas and two other states.¹² In cases in Nebraska, Pennsylvania, and Illinois the courts held that the singing of hymns violated constitutional provisions in those states.¹³ In most cases, the courts have given approval to the practice of teachers reading from the Bible. The reasoning has been that the reading of the Bible was to teach morality rather than religion. In some cases, however, the courts have ruled against reading from the Bible on the ground that this practice is sectarian in nature. Also, some courts have noted that reading from the Bible violates the religious freedom of non-Christians. No general conclusion may be drawn regarding the legality of using prayers, hymn singing, or Bible reading. A teacher has to study the legal status of these practices in his own state to make sure he is complying with the laws.

Teaching religion in school. The McCollum and the Zorach cases resulted in two famous court decisions with regard to the teaching of religion in public schools. The McCollum petition originated in Champaign, Illinois, when the local schools set aside a period per week for religious instruction. Persons employed by a Council of Religious Education came to the public school buildings to teach religion. The practice was challenged by a parent by the name of McCollum, on the constitutional grounds of freedom of religion.¹⁴ In an 8 to 1 decision, rendered in 1948, the

⁹ *O'Connor v. Hendrick*, 77 N.E. 612 (N.Y. 1906).

¹⁰ *Gerhardt v. Heid*, 267 N.W. 127 (N.D. 1936).

¹¹ *Herold v. Parish Board*, 68, 116 (La. 1915).

¹² *Church v. Bullock*, 190 S.W. 115 (Texas 1908).

¹³ *Stevenson v. Hanyon*, 7 Pa. Dist. R. 585 (1898); *State v. Schene*, 91 N.W. 846 (Nebr. 1902); *People v. Board of Education*, 92 N.E. 251 (Ill. 1910).

¹⁴ *Illinois ex. rel. McCollum v. Board of Education*, 333 U.S. 203 (1948).

United States Supreme Court held the practice to be unconstitutional.

With three Justices dissenting, the United States Supreme Court upheld in the *Zorach* case, the New York released-time plan in 1952.¹⁵ Under the New York plan, pupils went to religious centers for instruction; consequently, the public school facilities were not used. Parents' permission was necessary for pupils to be excused to attend classes in religion. Costs of the program were paid by the churches.

It would seem that released-time programs may receive court approval if (1) they are not conducted on school property, (2) they do not make use of the "compulsory school machinery," that is, compulsory attendance laws, and (3) they are not promoted by teachers or administrators. As matters stand now, the Supreme Court has said that the teaching of religion in the public schools, even on a released-time basis, is unconstitutional.

PARTICIPATION OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT IN FINANCING PUBLIC EDUCATION

The relationship between states and the federal government has been debated almost from the time this country was founded. Fear of the power of the federal government is the principal cause of resistance to aiding schools with tax funds collected in Washington. The feeling of some toward the national government is analogous to Huckleberry Finn's attitude toward the Widow Douglas, of whom he said she "allowed she would civilize me." Huek muses on how "the widow rung a bell for supper and you had to come on time. . . . She put me in them new clothes again, and I couldn't do nothing hut sweat and sweat and feel all eramped up . . . so when I couldn't stand it no longer I lit out. I got into my old rags and my sugar-hogshead again, and was free and satisfied."

Individual states have frequently viewed the federal government suspiciously as an autocratic "Widow Douglas," "though she never meant no harm by it." They still see her as protective and smotheringly benignant.

¹⁵ *Zorach v. Clauson*, 343 U.S. 308 (1952).

Federal Interest in Education

Traditionally, education has been a matter of state concern. Actually, however, education has at no time been an activity solely of the states. The federal government has always manifested a vital interest in education. Recent grave problems have merely heightened the need for defining more accurately to what extent, under what circumstances, and with what controls the federal government should contribute funds to education—and still keep the states “free and satisfied.”¹⁶

Though the states have jealously guarded their individual autonomy, the national government has always kept a foot in the doorway and been ready to chide, coerce, hearten, or nurture. The government assured itself of this not-clearly-bounded right in the Constitution (Article I, Section 8, Clause 1): “The Congress shall have power to . . . provide for the . . . general welfare of the United States.”

Arguments for Federal Participation in the Support of Public Schools

Arguments advanced in support of federal participation in the financing of schools include these:

A population explosion since World War II has placed an educational burden on communities and states that they do not have the financial capacity to carry.

The geographical mobility of people today is such that living and educational standards in some of the wealthier states are lowered by in-migration to them by people from poor states; therefore, wealthy states should share in financing schools in the poorer states.

The ideal of equalization of educational opportunity demands that wealth be taxed where it is and distributed to the states and localities in proportion to their educational need, financial ability, and effort to support schools.

Draft rejections in World War II were in direct proportion to the educational standards of the states; therefore, in order to re-

¹⁶For an excellent discussion of important questions see Sam M. Lambert, “Federal Support for Public Schools,” *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 2 (February, 1960), pp. 52-54.

main militarily strong, federal support of schools is necessary.

The forms of wealth have become so diversified that only tax machinery on the national level can tap these forms of wealth in a fair manner.

To train a jet pilot costs 10 times the amount needed to educate a physician, engineer, teacher, or scientist, and yet such professional people are as vital to national defense as military personnel; therefore, the federal government should help to finance their preparation.

Arguments Against Federal Participation in the Support of Public Schools

Arguments opposed to federal participation in the financing of public schools include the following:

Increasing federal aid would "produce the sickening cadence of the goose step," some contend. In other words, centralization of power, sometimes a prelude to totalitarianism, would be encouraged by federal support of public schools.

"If federal funds were given the public schools for growth, private education would be interfered with," according to some religious authorities.

Too much of the money that is collected by taxes from states by the federal treasury goes to overhead costs.

Federal support of schools would constitute a serious encroachment upon states' rights.

States do not need assistance; they can pay for their own schools.

Rich states should not be taxed to support schools in poor states.

Many of the arguments about federal aid are actually based on struggles and controversies in which the fiscal and educational considerations are of secondary importance. For example, an issue of increasing importance, though technically in the church-state field comes into focus in the federal aid controversy. The issue is: "Shall tax funds be used to support private and parochial schools?" Public policy throughout the history of the United States has been that tax money shall not be used to support nonpublic schools. Tremendous pressure is building up to reverse that policy. Some states have made tuition grants available to children whose parents want them to go to an "all-white" school. Some religious groups, notably the Roman Catholics, are opposed to federal aid

unless it would help parochial as well as public schools. Today about 16 per cent of the children in the United States attend a nonpublic school. Of these, 90 per cent are in parochial schools conducted by the Roman Catholic Church. In writing about this problem, R. Freeman Butts said:¹⁷

In recent decades, the arguments for diverting public funds to private schools have changed. It is now argued that the states should aid all parents to send their children to the kind of school they wish. This would not aid *schools*; it would aid parents to exercise their freedom of educational choice. So if parents want their children to go to religious schools, they should receive their fair share of tax funds. If they want their children to go to all-white schools, they should receive tax funds to help them do this. Obviously, the whole idea of a common school is now under severe attack.

For many years organizations of business and industrial leaders have opposed federal support for schools. This wall of solidarity was broken when the Committee for Economic Development, whose members are well-known and influential leaders, endorsed limited federal aid. They said:

While we regret the necessity for any further expansion of the Federal role, we do find Federal supplementation of state and local funds necessary for the improvement of schools in the poorer states. We recommend that the Federal Government make financial grants to support public schools in those states where income per public school child is substantially below the national average.¹⁸

Those who are interested in the federal aid to education controversy will need to keep under close scrutiny developments bearing on the religious issue, the race issue, the economy issue, and state-federal relationships. Coalitions of power groups are likely to arrive at compromises which will eventuate in legislation and fiscal policy. Such compromises may or may not be in the public interest. Only an informed, intelligent, and politically active citizenry can assure a fiscal policy that is for the common good.

¹⁷ R. Freeman Butts, "Search for Freedom—The Story of American Education," NEA Journal, Vol. 49, No. 3 (March, 1960), p. 43.

¹⁸ Committee for Economic Development, *Paying for Better Public Schools* (New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1959), p. 9.

Whether one is in favor of federal participation in the support of schools or opposed to it, he must realize that since 1785 the people of the United States have used the resources and facilities of their national government to help with certain educational problems. A good guess today is that more, rather than less, funds from federal sources will be allocated to the states for the support of schools. Whether further allocation of federal resources for support of schools will result in a "Widow Douglas" policy or confirmation of the hypothesis of separability of finance and control will depend upon Congress and ultimately upon the people.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Academic freedom must be constantly protected in the United States. In the first place, the prevalence of controversial issues is to be expected in a nation where there is a range in values. This fact was anticipated by the founders of this country, as indicated by the provisions of the First Amendment to the Constitution which provides the basic guarantee of freedom of expression. But people must use this guarantee if it is to be meaningful and effective.

Definition of Academic Freedom

Academic freedom means freedom to study, learn, and teach. It encompasses the right of the teacher to discuss freely any pertinent subjects in the classroom within his field of professional competency. Interference with or censure of the teacher by school officials, or by outside individuals or groups, as a result of the teacher's handling of pertinent subjects is precluded by academic freedom.

On the other hand, academic freedom is not license for the teacher to engage in indoctrination. Neither can academic freedom be invoked by a teacher to cover unprofessional conduct.

Some Encroachments on Academic Freedom

The following encroachments upon academic freedom are presented for illustrative purposes:

Loyalty oaths are required of teachers in about half of the states. To single out teachers by requiring them to sign a loyalty oath leaves undesirable and unjustified implications. For example, the assumption that an appreciable number of teachers would pledge

allegiance to a foreign government or ideology except for the special loyalty oath is implicit in legislation that requires such oaths.

Censorship of textbooks and other instructional materials has been exercised in some school districts. Teachers must be free to select material and to assign books to be read by pupils.

Indoctrination is a threat to academic freedom. Some may think all infringements upon academic freedom come from outside the profession of teaching. This assumption is not necessarily true. The teacher may violate the students' freedom to learn by setting forth in dogmatic terms conclusions that pupils are required to accept.

Intellectual docility violates or makes possible violation of academic freedom. Teachers are obligated to make maximum use of their intellect and to encourage and stimulate others to do likewise.

Reprisals are occasionally made against teachers for legitimate political activity or for dealing openly and objectively with controversial subjects. Other members of the profession are bound by professional ethics to go to the defense of a teacher who suffers when academic freedom is violated.

Safeguards of Academic Freedom

Academic freedom has survived in this country for a variety of reasons. Some of the important reasons, identified here as safeguards, are these:

School boards maintain written policies which permit teachers to deal with controversial issues. Such statements usually define the framework in which these issues are to be considered.

Professional unity in the face of threats to academic freedom helps to protect freedom to learn, to study, and to teach.

Tenure laws and regulations encourage teachers to protect academic freedom.

The professional integrity of members of the profession of teaching is of fundamental importance as a protective device for academic freedom. Many teachers would be willing to lose their positions rather than sacrifice rights provided in the Constitution and the principles of free inquiry incorporated in the concept of academic freedom.

The teacher should be ever mindful of Jefferson's profound statement related to academic freedom, made in his first inaugural address: "If there be any among us who wish to dissolve this union, or to change its republican form, let them stand undisturbed, as monuments of the safety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it." It is imperative that academic freedom be jealously guarded—that "error of opinion be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it."

DISCRIMINATION AND SEGREGATION

The concept of equal opportunity forms the basis for the controversy over racial discrimination and segregation which has intensified during the twentieth century. Conflicts over discrimination and segregation come to focus in schools primarily because of the importance of providing all children, regardless of race, color, or creed, a fair chance to learn. How a teacher meets this opportunity will depend to a considerable extent upon his understanding of the relationship of the problems to a democratic society and to the system of education which supports and nourishes the ideals to which the nation is committed.

Discrimination in the United States

Although the Negro-white strife is undoubtedly the sharpest racial or ethnic conflict in the nation, there are two egregious fallacies which commonly cloud people's judgment regarding discrimination and segregation. One is that the problem is solely one of colored vs. white,¹⁹ the other that the difficulty is relevant to the Southern section of the nation alone.

Impatience and indignation over the treatment of the Negro in Southern states is often expressed by some Northerners, Easterners, or Westerners, who are seemingly oblivious to discrimination in their own communities. Discriminatory practices are directed against various racial and religious groups. A psychologist in one elementary school (in a suburban middle-class neighborhood of the Middle West) commented recently on discriminatory pressures that tragically predispose to emotional disturbance any child in his school who is not white and Gentile. Perhaps many

¹⁹ For descriptions of various racial and ethnic problems see Eli Ginzberg, ed., *The Nation's Children*, Vol. 3, *Problems and Prospects*, op. cit.

citizens have come to accept as natural their own exclusiveness and discrimination in schools, job opportunities, labor unions, housing, beauty parlors, swimming pools, motels, clubs, resorts, restaurants, doctors' offices, churches, and political groups. Jews, Orientals, Negroes, Latin Americans, and other racial minorities are frequently pariahs in certain sections of the country.

To illustrate, one of the serious racial conflicts involves citizens from Puerto Rico. It is estimated that about 600,000 Puerto Ricans live in New York City. About one in three of their school-age children are "non-English speaking."²⁰ Puerto Ricans and their life in New York are described thus:²¹

By mainland criteria, two-thirds are colored. Most of the migrants are without much skill, and three-fifths of them arrive in New York with very little facility in the English language. In many respects their experience resembles that of other immigrant groups. They are poor and uneducated and live in the least desirable sections of the city. Landlords and sharks exploit them; native Americans accuse them of "clannishness" even though the newcomers are divided by class, religion, and so forth; their crimes become "crime waves"; and they are the current scapegoat for many of the community's ills. Competition and conflict predominate in their relationships with natives, but these are giving way gradually to accommodation and assimilation.

A generalization of profound importance to the teacher, or future teacher, is that *discrimination and segregation are national, not regional, problems*. The teacher may expect to find discrimination and prejudice wherever minority groups exist, where clannishness is prevalent, where groups compete with each other economically, and where the level of education is not high. These conditions and circumstances are the basic causes of discrimination.

Solution to the Discrimination Problem

The ultimate solution to the discrimination problem is the process of education itself.

Educators in particular can take encouragement and challenge

²⁰ For a discussion of educational problems, see John H. Burma, "Spanish-speaking Children," in *ibid.*, pp. 78-102.

²¹ J. Milton Yinger and George E. Simpson, "The Integration of Americans of Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Oriental Descent," *The Annals* (March, 1956), p. 127.

from the inchoate improvement in racial harmony. There seems to be a direct correlation between the amount of education and tolerance toward the Negro. In 1956, an extensive survey indicated that among Northern whites, 75 per cent of the college-educated, 63 per cent of those who attended high school, and 50 per cent of those who went only to grammar school approved of school integration.²²

Furthermore, the younger generation, in general better educated than their elders, is setting a trend toward tolerance. In the North, school integration is favored by 67 per cent of the white group age 21-24, and by only 53 per cent of those 65 and older. Among the white Southerners, 19 per cent of those age 21-24 think white and Negro students should go to the same schools, while only 10 per cent of the age group 65 and over are in agreement.²³

A consistent increase has occurred in the last 15 years in the belief that Negroes are as intelligent as white people. In 1942, 50 per cent of Northerners polled answered "No" when asked if they thought that in general Negroes are as intelligent as white people—that is, can learn things just as well if given the same education and training. Today only one in seven feels Negroes are intellectually inferior. In the South, nearly 60 per cent accede to equal Negro intelligence as against 21 per cent in 1942.²⁴ The gains are in a sense dramatic; at least they are consistent and sure.

Perhaps the best advice that could be given to the future teacher is this: One need not be altruistic to recognize the necessity of evaluating each individual only on the basis of his personal merit. One needs only to be rational. What is the logical extension of discrimination against another human being by arbitrary criteria such as race, color, or religion? Obviously such capricious judgment makes tenuous one's own standing as a human being. When esteem is based no longer on personal excellence, but on whimsical partiality, no man can be certain that tomorrow the traits in disfavor may not be his. Abraham Lincoln's observa-

²² Herbert H. Hyman and Paul B. Sheatsley, "Attitudes Toward Desegregation," *Scientific American*, Vol. 195, No. 6 (December, 1956), p. 2.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

tion should be a sobering admonition to each American: "In giving freedom to the slave we assure freedom to the free."

Segregation According to Race in Public Schools

Segregation according to race in the public schools should be viewed in its historical context. The problem originated some 200 years ago with the slave trade in America. Although many colonists were outraged when traffickers in the lucrative world slave trade market were allured to their shores, none anticipated the disfigurement, the scars to the national soul, which would eventually result.

Although the tragic War Between the States, which was precipitated by the slavery controversy, came close to destroying the Union, it did give freedom, of a sort, to the more than 380,000 Negroes in bondage. Enduring bitterness was engendered by the Reconstruction Government and by the practices of carpet baggers and scalawags. Jim Crowism was spawned and flourished in a defeated and antagonistic South.

One approach to the racial problem after the Civil War was to segregate Negroes while providing them with equal facilities. Through decisions by state courts, the "separate but equal" practice received legal sanction. In 1896, in the famous *Plessy v. Ferguson* case,²³ the "separate but equal" practice was validated under the Constitution by the United States Supreme Court. Though the case grew out of enforced segregation on a railroad engaged in interstate commerce, it was applied in subsequent years to municipal golf courses, beaches, parks, and other facilities. The *Plessy* doctrine (separate but equal facilities) was finally applied to public education. Enforced segregation, according to the *Plessy* doctrine, was legal in public schools as long as equal facilities were provided for Negroes.

Racial segregation, according to the eminent historian C. Vann Woodward, was not a generally established practice in the South until the early 1900's.²⁴ During the early years of the twentieth century a variety of segregation statutes were enacted in Southern states. Between 1901 and 1907 the states of North

²³ *Plessy v. Ferguson*, 163 U.S. 537 (1896).

²⁴ C. Vann Woodward, *The Strange Career of Jim Crow, A Brief Account of Segregation* (New York: Oxford University Press, Inc., 1955).

Carolina, Louisiana, Arkansas, Virginia, South Carolina, Tennessee, Mississippi, Maryland, Florida, and Oklahoma enacted statutes requiring separation of the races on streetcars. Georgia had passed a similar law in 1891. White and Negro prisoners in state penitentiaries were housed separately in many Southern states. Gradually the practice of requiring separation of races by law extended to park facilities, municipal zoos, public golf courses, trains, waiting room, and practically all social or recreational gatherings. Thus a formidable and seemingly impenetrable wall of segregation was built.

Decisions of federal courts gradually eroded the wall of segregation of the races that had been built by state laws, tradition, and court decisions. In 1915, in *Guinn v. United States*, the Court declared that the grandfather clause, a device used to prevent Negroes from voting in some states, violated the Fifteenth Amendment.²⁷ A few years later the Court ruled that the white primary in Texas violated the Fourteenth Amendment.²⁸ In the realm of housing the Court held in *Corrigan v. Buckley* that restrictive covenants against various minority racial groups could not be upheld by state court action.²⁹ In 1946 in *Morgan v. Virginia*, the Supreme Court invalidated a state statute requiring Negroes to occupy designated seats on buses.³⁰ Obviously, new interpretations in a variety of cases were being given to the Constitution. The wall of segregation was slowly crumbling.

Several years previous to the May 17, 1954, decision of the Supreme Court it was clear that the Plessy doctrine would eventually be reversed. The Court held in 1938 that if a state provided legal education within the state for white students, it must provide legal education within the state for Negro students.³¹ Thus, equality was defined in such a way as to enable a subsequent Court to reverse the Plessy doctrine. The next step occurred in the *Sweatt v. Painter* case in 1950.³² Plaintiff Sweatt, a Negro, sought admission to the University of Texas Law School.

²⁷ *Guinn v. United States*, 233 U.S. 347.

²⁸ *Nixon v. Herndon*, 273 U.S. 536 (1927).

²⁹ *Corrigan v. Buckley*, 271 U.S. 323 (1926).

³⁰ *Morgan v. Virginia*, 328 U.S. 373 (1946).

³¹ *Missouri ex rel. Gaines v. Canada*, 305 U.S. 337 (1938).

³² *Sweatt v. Painter*, 339 U.S. 629 (1950).

He was denied admission and told to go to a newly established state law school for Negroes in Houston, Texas. Upon appeal, the Court directed the University of Texas to admit him. Eventually, in May of 1954 the Plessy doctrine was reversed. The following quotation contains the decision:²¹

Today, education is perhaps the most important function of state and local governments. Compulsory school attendance laws and the great expenditures for education both demonstrate our recognition of the importance of education to our democratic society. It is required in the performance of our most basic public responsibilities, even in the armed forces. Today it is a principal instrument in awakening the child to cultural values, in preparing him for later professional training, and in helping him to adjust normally to his environment. In these days, it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of an education. Such an opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide it, is a right which must be made available to all on equal terms.

We come then to the question presented: Does segregation of children in public schools solely on basis of race, even though the physical facilities and other "tangible" factors may be equal, deprive the children of the minority group of equal educational opportunities? We believe that it does. . . .

We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of "separate but equal" has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. Therefore, we hold that the plaintiffs and others similarly situated for whom the actions have been brought are, by reason of the segregation complained of, deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment.

The "highest court in the land" has interpreted the Constitution to mean that compulsory segregation is illegal. Since that momentous decision some states have moved "with all deliberate speed" toward gradual integration of the races in the public schools. Others have resorted to subterfuge. A few have been overtly defiant. As to the final outcome in the states affected by the decision, a good guess is that they will grudgingly, slowly, but finally comply with the Supreme Court decree.

²¹ *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, 347 U.S. 483.

CRITICISMS OF SCHOOLS

In every generation there are critics of the schools. A few examples will illustrate the point. The official minutes of a meeting of the school committee (board of education) in a New England community contained this statement:³⁴ "Our schools are in a feeble and backward state. We think the modern mode of instruction is decidedly bad." The lament that modern schools were in a "feeble and backward state" was made in 1856.

A similar criticism in a *New York Sun* editorial read, in part:

When we were boys, boys had to do a little work in school. They were not coaxed; they were hammered. Spelling, writing, and arithmetic were not electives, and you had to learn. In these more fortunate times elementary education has become in many places a vaudeville show. The child must be kept amused and learns what he pleases. Many sage teachers scorn the old-fashioned rudiments, and it seems to be regarded as between a misfortune and a crime for a child to learn to read.

The *Sun* editorial was published in 1902. Similar criticisms of public schools are heard today—"Schools are not tough enough. Children are not learning the fundamentals."

The seriousness of contemporary criticisms is in no way lessened because faults have been found with schools in every generation. Today as always an effort must be made by educational authorities to accurately weigh both favorable and unfavorable criticisms of the schools. All critics and their charges are entitled to a fair hearing.

The answers to three questions are helpful to those who want to analyze objectively current criticisms and their validity. What are the reasons for criticisms of the public schools? What is the nature of criticisms of public schools? What does reliable research evidence indicate as to the validity, or lack of it, of the criticisms?

Reasons for Criticisms of Public Schools

There are numerous reasons for the criticisms of schools prevalent today. The following examples show that some of the

³⁴ Quoted by William H. Burton in, "Get the Facts: Both Ours and the Other Fellows" *Progressive Education* (January, 1952), p. 89.

reasons are legitimate and helpful, and that others are spurious and destructive:

Criticisms of educational programs indicate an interest in public schools. Few major magazines go as long as a year without at least one article devoted to schools. Recently, state-wide conferences were held on education in each state, and the 1955 White House Conference on education was the culmination of the state meetings. The National School Boards Association, made up of lay people who are interested in schools, is more active than it has ever been. There is plenty of evidence to support the generalization that interest in education is high.

Inadequacies in schools cause criticisms. Children in numerous communities may attend school for only half-time because of building shortages. Thousands of school districts are unable to staff their schools with competent and fully qualified teachers. As has always been the case, better teaching and better educational programs are possible, and needed, in all schools.

A segment of the population does not believe in public education and is vociferous in its criticisms of the schools. It may be surprising to realize that some people in the United States believe that education of the young should be left entirely to private and parochial schools. Those who have this philosophy are naturally unfriendly toward public schools, regardless of what the public schools do or don't do.

Nostalgia causes criticisms of public schools. People easily fall into the trap of thinking schools were better "in the good old days." Then, too, there is a certain amount of ego-massage involved in the position that "schools were a lot tougher in my day than they are now."

Those who would reduce taxes at any cost criticize the schools as an object of expense. Members of this group are likely to argue "We don't need these palaces for children to attend school in" and "teachers are overpaid now."

The cold war has precipitated some criticisms of schools. The competition between East and West has led some people to conclude that educational programs in modern schools should place more emphasis upon science and mathematics. Also because of the cold war, people are in a state of tension and anxiety, and they seem to release some of their frustrations by blaming

the schools for the present state of affairs.

Teachers should examine the reasons for criticisms made of educational programs. In cases where criticism is honestly conceived and legitimate, ways and means must be found to alleviate the weaknesses. In cases where criticism is spurious and illegitimate, school officials and teachers should provide the public with the facts.

The Nature of Criticisms

Most of the popular criticisms of educational programs are related to the general contention that "progressive education" has weakened schools. The criticisms, stated in various terms, usually are found to have about the same meaning. "Schools are not as good as they were in the past." "Schools do not teach pupils how to think; they are 'play' schools." "Educational programs are anti-intellectual and narrowly utilitarian." "Teachers have been taken in by the progressive philosophy."

Current criticisms of education can be grouped into six categories: (1) the purposes of education; (2) the cost of buildings, equipment, and teachers' salaries; (3) the results obtained; (4) the teaching methods employed; (5) the curriculum; and (6) teacher education. Some topics, such as "the schools are not as good as they used to be" (results obtained), receive more attention than others. However, as the broad categories indicate, no major area of education escapes attention by critics.

Findings of Representative Research Studies

No comprehensive review of the research relating to criticisms of schools can be made here. However, representative studies have been selected for illustrative purposes. The student should review the studies noted here and find others that are pertinent to the subject. Sample studies and major conclusions follow:

A study relating to the quality of learning in today's schools compared the test scores of 230,000 pupils dating from the present back to 1844. The tests were in two of the 3 R's, reading and arithmetic. Conclusion: Children are learning these subjects better now than pupils did in past generations.²⁵

²⁵ B. R. Rock, *Children's Achievement: Today and Yesterday* (Austin: Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association, 1952).

A comparison was made of scores made by pupils over a 10-year period on the same mathematics and language usage tests. Conclusion: the scores improved 12 per cent over a 10-year period.³⁶

Children (over 600) taught in selected schools which emphasized general child development as well as academic skills were compared with pupils in subject centered schools. The *New California Tests of Mental Maturity and Metropolitan Achievement Test* were used. Conclusion: differences in test scores between the two groups were not conclusive in favor of either.³⁷

The customary entrance requirements for graduates of 30 progressive high schools were waived by 179 colleges. A total of 1,475 graduates of these schools were matched with a like number of students from traditional high schools in 39 colleges. A comparison of the success in college of the matched pairs indicated that: (1) graduates of the progressive schools received a slightly higher total grade average than did their counterparts, (2) the progressive school graduates did better in all subjects except foreign languages, (3) progressive school graduates were said by participating college faculties to possess more intellectual curiosity, better ability and disposition to think, and greater resourcefulness than did traditional school graduates, and (4) more academic and nonacademic honors were won by the graduates of the 30 progressive schools than by their counterparts from traditional schools.³⁸

Comparisons of high school enrollment trends in mathematics, science, and foreign languages in proportion to growth in population are indicated by Figure 4.

As the data in Figure 4 indicate, enrollment increases in science, mathematics, and foreign languages greatly exceed the growth in population. This does not necessarily mean, however, that as

³⁶ Ernest Walter Tiegs, "Comparison of Pupil Achievement in the Basic Skills Before and After 1945," *Growing Points in Educational Research* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, American Educational Research Association, Official Report, 1949), pp. 50-57.

³⁷ Mary L. Starkey, *Status of the Grandview Heights Elementary School, 1951, Compared with National Norms in Reading and Arithmetic* (Columbus, Ohio: Grandview Heights Public Schools, 1951).

³⁸ Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942).

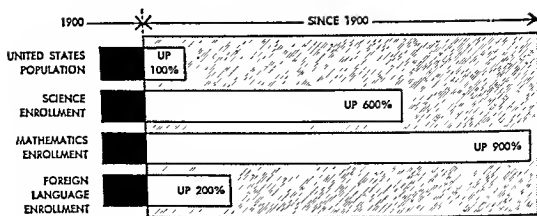


FIGURE 4.

COMPARISON OF GROWTH IN UNITED STATES POPULATION AND ENROLLMENTS IN SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS, AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES

Adapted from Harold G. Shane, "We Can Be Proud of the Facts," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 60, No. 3 (September, 1957), p. 45.

many pupils take these courses as should, or that instruction in these fields is as good as it should be.

Complacency Has No Place in Education

Much of the criticism of educational programs is deserved, at least in some schools. While pupils seem to be learning more today than they did in past generations, improvements are still needed if schools are to keep abreast of developments in other fields. Good teachers are never satisfied with the *status quo* and constantly seek new and better ways to do their important work.

THE PROFESSIONAL APPROACH TO ISSUES AND CRITICISMS

Although a limited set of common values prevails in the United States, society does not agree on all of its fundamental moral and intellectual postulates. Divergent views and differences in values cause controversial issues. Because the school is a social agency established to transmit the culture, and because there are many areas of disagreement as to which of the elements in the culture should be transmitted, it is axiomatic that issues and criticisms are confronted continuously in the field of education.

How controversial issues and criticisms are dealt with by the teacher is of crucial importance. He is continually working in relationship to conflicting and competing values—in the classroom and in the community. His work is important in preserving or modifying the culture. In meeting the deep responsibility inherent in his position of public trust, the teacher must function as a professional person.

What are the characteristics of the professional approach to issues and criticisms? Five significant generalizations help to answer the question: (1) The teacher exhibits a sound grasp of the central meaning of freedom; (2) The teacher strives constantly to release man from the bondage of ignorance; (3) The teacher remains vigilant against suppression of ideas; (4) The teacher has the courage needed to deal with controversial issues; and (5) The teacher encourages criticisms of schools.

The Teacher Must Grasp the Central Meaning of Freedom

Protecting freedom in all aspects of life is the teacher's responsibility. This requires an appreciation of the full significance of freedom, if the teacher is to help pupils learn to deal with ideas critically. By precept and example the teacher leads pupils to capitalize on differences among them as "points of strength to share in creating a common life."³⁹ The behavior of the teacher acknowledges and exemplifies his belief that freedom involves responsibility as well as privilege.

The Teacher Must Constantly Strive to Release Man from the Bondage of Ignorance

"Ignorance is the curse of God, knowledge the wing wherewith we fly to heaven," wrote Shakespeare. Stated in other words, "And ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free." In these words, Jesus took note of the power of knowledge of the truth. Controversial questions are the "growing edge" of the culture and through them man may achieve new and deeper

³⁹ H. Gordon Hullfish, "Keeping Our Schools Free," *Public Affairs Pamphlet*, No. 199 (September, 1953), p. 27.

understanding of life. The teacher must provide a climate in which students can carry on a continuing search for truth.

The Teacher Remains Vigilant Against Suppression of Ideas

True education results from an objective and thoughtful consideration of all types of beliefs. The professional teacher therefore avoids the role of a partisan and shuns propagandistic or indoctrination devices. As Walter Lippmann once observed, "No official yet born on this earth is wise enough or generous enough to separate good ideas from bad beliefs."⁴⁰ The best way to promote right opinion is to make sure that all opinions are heard. Furthermore, the teacher must subject ideas to critical review, and he must encourage others to do the same. An unexamined idea, to paraphrase Socrates, is of little worth.

The Professional Teacher Has the Courage to Deal with Controversial Issues

The professional teacher realizes that discussion of issues in accordance with democratic procedure is a prerequisite to understanding and creative compromise, which is the way many issues are resolved. Full and complete discussion of issues is a learning process so vital that it cannot be sacrificed or impaired in the name of peace or harmony.

The Professional Teacher Encourages Criticism of Schools

Citizens in a democracy have the right and moral obligation to criticize any public or private institution. Even though the prerogative is sometimes abused by people who are guided by ignorance or selfish interests, it is a constitutional right that must not be infringed upon in a free society. The educator must not combat even negative, destructive criticisms of schools by attempting to silence critics, by name calling, or by making extravagant, unreliable, or indefensible counter claims. On the positive side, what the educator must remember is that education (to quote William James) "like life, feeds on its own decay. New

⁴⁰ Walter Lippmann, "Free Speech and Free Press," *Bulletin of League of Free Nations Association*, Vol. 1 (March, 1920), p. 1.

facts burst old rules; then newly devised conceptions bind old and new together into a reconciling law." Criticisms of schools sometimes lead to new facts that help to "burst old rules," thereby promoting progress in education.

SUMMARY

Controversial issues and criticisms of public schools are possible only in nations where men are free to think and to speak their thoughts. Grave internal conflicts sometimes develop in a free society and drive wedges of intolerance and bitterness between different groups. That such conditions exist in America is obvious. That such conditions make an impact on education is axiomatic.

Courts have generally ruled that the teaching of religion in public schools is prohibited. The teaching of religion means the transmission of the accepted dogmas, doctrines, and creeds of a religious denomination or sect for the purpose of influencing the pupil to accept such teachings as truth and to act accordingly.

The extent to which the federal government should participate in financing public education is an unsettled question. Traditionally, education has been a matter of state and local concern. At the same time, the federal government has demonstrated an interest in public education beginning with the Ordinance of 1787. Today, millions of dollars from federal sources are expended for the support of public schools.

Teachers must have freedom to teach, to study, to learn and to deal in a professional manner with any pertinent subject in the classroom. The words used to describe such conditions are "academic freedom." Encroachments on academic freedom include special loyalty oaths for teachers, censorship, indoctrination, intellectual docility on the part of the teacher, and reprisals against teachers for dealing with controversial subjects in the classroom.

Safeguards for academic freedom include written school board policies that set forth the framework in which teachers can deal with controversial issues, the integrity of teachers, professional unity, and tenure statutes.

Discrimination and segregation, practices that may be found in many fields, come to focus in schools. As an ideal, general agreement exists that all children, regardless of race, color, or

creed, should have a fair chance to learn. For this reason the teacher is a key social agent for reducing discriminatory practices and for helping eliminate harmful segregation in schools.

The public school is the recipient of many criticisms. Such criticisms indicate a widespread interest in education. Some more specific reasons for criticisms are the inadequacies in schools, the fact that some people do not believe in public schools, the fact that some people like to contend that schools were better "in the good old days," and the fact that tensions are relieved by finding fault with education.

A professional approach to issues and criticisms should always be made by the teacher. Guide lines for a mature, professional approach include several important generalizations. The teacher must grasp the central meaning of freedom. He must endeavor to dispel ignorance through true education. He must be vigilant in his opposition to the suppression of ideas. Full and complete discussion of controversial issues must be promoted. Criticisms of schools must be encouraged for progress in education is stimulated by criticism.

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FORCES THAT AFFECT SCHOOLS

Modern society may be thought of as an enormously complex machine made up of various separate parts each performing essential functions. All of the parts are interrelated and influenced by the total pattern. If the economic function of society is impaired, for example, through a severe depression such as that of the 1930's, scientific progress is slowed down. When new discoveries or inventions are made in the field of science, such as the development of atomic energy, important political and moral decisions must be made.

Since society is made up of myriad elements each of which bears a functional relationship to the others, maladjustments of various types occur. Change takes place at an uneven rate in economic processes, in governmental and educational institutions, as well as in the social and moral values that are generally accepted. New elements are injected into society from time to time creating, in some instances, traumatic imbalances. Consequently, efforts are being made continually to bring about satisfactory adjustments, to achieve harmony and compatibility. Such attempts to direct or control the factors which shape individual and group life are referred to here as forces.

Some of the contemporary forces that are bearing upon schools—and consequently upon teachers—are depicted in Figure 5.

A reciprocal relationship between the public school and forces that affect it is indicated by the two directional arrows. Schools are influenced by the social, economic, religious, and scientific factors enumerated; in turn, schools have an impact on the total social fabric.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL FORCES AFFECT SCHOOLS

As historian Henry Steele Commager has stated, "Schools reflect the society they serve." Clues as to how major values come to be

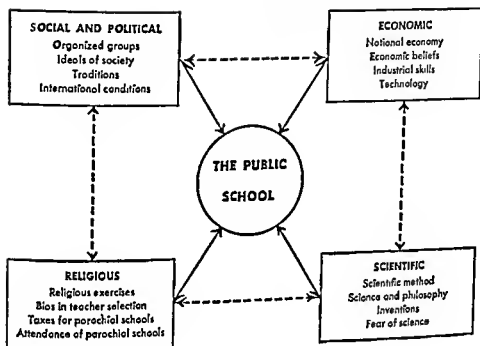


FIGURE 5.

FORCES THAT AFFECT SCHOOLS

accepted may be found in a study of contemporary social and political forces that affect schools. Some of the more important social and political forces, indicating the complexity and scope of the topic under discussion, are presented in Figure 6.

Ideals of Society

Foremost among the forces that affect schools are the ideals that chart the course for the society that schools serve. In the United States, democracy, freedom, and education for all are guiding tenets for the nature and structure of education. Because education must serve the goals of the society, it must maintain in its program appropriate instruction to guarantee that the ideals to which people pay allegiance are transmitted to future generations. The force of societal ideals, more than any other, gives uniqueness to a nation's system of education.

Customs, Mores, Traditions

Social customs, mores, and traditions may enrich life and give meaning and significance to human activities; on the other hand,

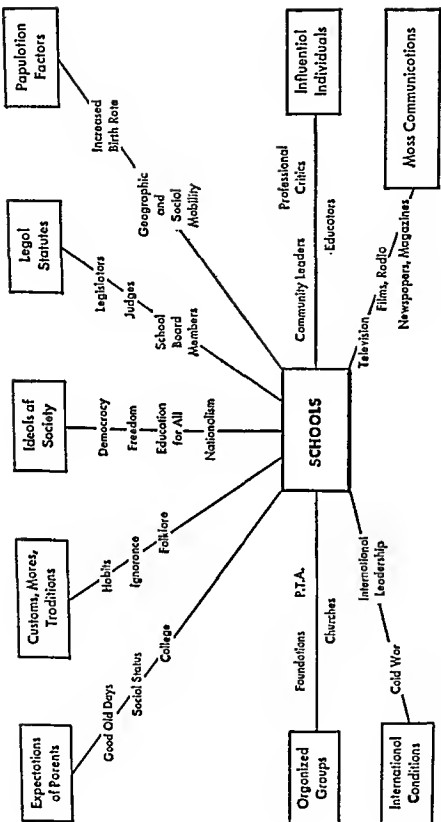


FIGURE 0.
SOCIAL AND POLITICAL FORCES THAT AFFECT SCHOOLS

these forces may serve to retard social and political progress. Citizens who dream of schools of their youth inadvertently oppose educational progress because they cherish too devoutly the customs, mores, and traditions by which they were reared. It is paradoxical, too, that the better educated a people, the more educational opportunities they want for their children; the poorer the education of parents, the lower the educational ambitions they hold for the next generation. Little's study of the plans of Wisconsin's youth for education beyond high school strongly supported this point.¹ If the level of education of a community is known, the educational aspirations of its young people can be predicted fairly accurately.

Folklore, ignorance, dogma, and tradition are major deterrents to education progress. These forces, all of which receive support from well-meaning individuals and groups in all communities, endorse the *status quo*, the schools of the past, and oppose efforts to discover ways to improve education.²

Legal Statutes

Schools, both public and private, owe their existence to legal statutes and many of their functions and activities are governed by legal enactments. Private schools are chartered and they usually enjoy tax-exempt status. In return their objectives and programs are expected to conform to the general ideals and goals of the society. They may pursue uniquely individualistic purposes as well, provided that these are not antiethical or subversive to the aims of the nation. Public schools are created and controlled by state legislative enactments. They are also regulated by local school board policies. Any biennial or annual session of the legislature or any monthly meeting of a school board may produce additional legal statutes which determine the direction of school programs or influence in one way or another the professional work of teachers. Similarly a decision by a state board of education or court on an educational issue gives direction to the course of education.

¹ J. Kenneth Little, *Explorations into the College Plans and Experiences of High School Graduates* (Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1960).

² Some educators are making efforts to overcome the stagnating effects of *status-quoism*. For example, see John Guy Fowlkes, "Organize Schools for Quality Operation," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 65, No. 6 (June, 1960), pp. 66-67, 90.

Population Factors

Three major population factors hold tremendous significance for the schools. The total population has increased dramatically in recent years; people are moving from rural to urban areas; and changes in age and sex distribution have occurred. Table 1 presents data that relate to the general increase and migration of population.

TABLE 1

URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES: SELECTED YEARS, 1920-1960

Census Year	Total Population (Thousands)	Urban Population		Rural Population	
		Total (Thousands)	Per Cent of Total	Total (Thousands)	Per Cent of Total
1920	107,711	54,158	51.2	51,553	48.8
1930	122,775	88,955	58.2	53,820	43.8
1940	131,669	74,424	58.5	57,248	43.5
1950	150,697	88,927	59.0	81,770	41.0
1960 *	180,100	116,468	64.7	83,832	35.3

* 1960 data are estimates based upon statistics found in *Current Population Reports* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1958).

Source: Adapted from National Industrial Conference Board, *The Economic Almanac* (New York: Newsweek, 1960), p. 5.

The population of the United States increased from 105,711,000 in 1920 to an estimated 180,100,000 in 1960. Department of Commerce projections indicate a total population of 260,000,000 by 1980. The spiraling population results in a demand for several thousand new teachers and classrooms each year.

Urban population is increasing. About two out of every three people in the United States live in urban areas, as data in Table 1 indicate. Population of the United States by size and place of habitation from 1790 to 1960 is shown by Figure 7.

According to leading geographers, the rural to urban population development, known as megalopolis, will eventuate in four metropolitan areas in the United States. The great urban areas will be from Boston to Charleston, the region along the Gulf Coast, the Middle West around Chicago, and the Pacific Coast

line. Urban residents have educational needs that differ from those of people who live in rural areas. There is less neighborhood cohesiveness in metropolitan areas, and the school loses some of its community-center function as population increases in urban areas.

Composition of population is changing. Age and sex distribution of population changes are indicated by the data in Table 2.

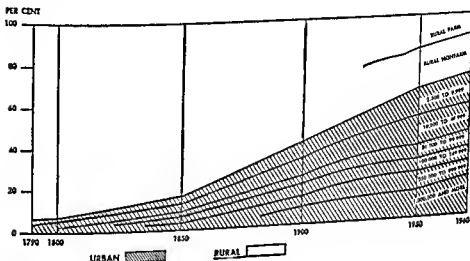


FIGURE 7.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES BY SIZE OF PLACE OF HABITATION,
1790-1960

The number of young people is increasing. At the same time the percentage of people 65 years of age and over continues to rise. These facts will probably mean that schools will be under pressure to provide more services for school-age children and youths as well as for older adults.

The Social Structure Affects Education

Cultural anthropologists, including A. B. Hollingshead, W. Lloyd Warner, and Robin M. Williams, have identified through various research studies the nature of the social structure and some of its educational implications.² Community stratification studies

² August B. Hollingshead, *Elmtown's Youth* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949); Lloyd W. Warner and associates, *Democracy in Jonesville* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949); Robin M. Williams, *American Society: A Sociological Interpretation* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1951).

TABLE 2

**AGE AND SEX DISTRIBUTION OF UNITED STATES
POPULATION PROJECTIONS: 1980, 1970, AND 1960**

Age	Thousands					
	1980		1970		1960	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All ages	120,979	124,430	102,592	105,607	88,932	90,841
Under 5 years	13,823	13,262	10,541	10,134	10,004	9,634
5 to 9	12,701	12,153	10,389	9,954	9,782	9,377
10 to 14	11,022	10,564	10,482	10,081	8,795	8,422
15 to 19	10,419	10,029	9,811	9,451	8,804	8,602
20 to 24	10,467	10,188	8,791	8,552	5,703	5,808
25 to 29	9,798	9,643	8,833	6,807	5,449	5,497
30 to 34	8,825	8,729	5,781	5,801	5,880	8,018
35 to 39	6,882	8,910	5,512	5,808	8,084	8,350
40 to 44	5,777	5,831	5,839	8,033	5,647	5,902
45 to 49	5,411	5,571	5,938	8,278	5,390	5,860
50 to 54	5,562	5,902	5,342	5,750	4,790	5,008
55 to 59	5,421	6,022	4,873	5,398	4,058	4,314
60 to 64	4,804	5,369	4,083	4,832	3,447	3,791
65 to 69	3,840	4,808	3,118	3,782	2,747	3,130
70 to 74	2,843	3,811	2,330	3,048	2,012	2,371
75 years and over	3,584	5,642	2,951	4,322	2,380	3,159

SOURCE: National Industrial Conference Board, *The Economic Almanac* (New York: Newsweek, 1960), p. 3. The National Industrial Conference Board obtained data from the Bureau of the Census.

have revealed six typical class groups: lower-lower, upper-lower, lower-middle, upper-middle, lower-upper, and upper-upper. Evidence from these research studies indicates that pupils from the various class backgrounds differ in motivation, aggressive patterns, test performance, and many other ways. Even the educational program is affected by class structure. Note Figure 8 which shows the courses selected by high school students from the various social classes in "Yankee City," as reported by Warner and Lunt.

In this study, students from the lower-upper social class tended to chose the scientific curriculum, while those in the upper-middle class group favored the Latin curriculum. Contrast these choices with the 72 per cent of students from lower-lower class homes who

elected the commercial or general curriculums.

A word of caution is in order about the relationship between education and social mobility. It is generally believed that education promotes fluidity in the class structure. Generally it does, but one research study that investigated the social background of

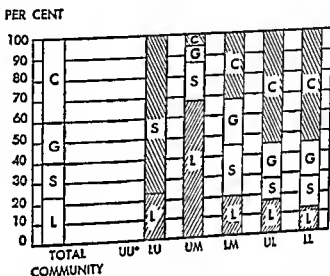


FIGURE 8.

COURSES SELECTED BY HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS
FROM THE SIX SOCIAL CLASSES IN YANKEE CITY

KEY:

UU = Upper-upper

LU = Lower-upper

UM = Upper-middle

LM = Lower-middle

UL = Upper-lower

LL = Lower-lower

C = Commercial

G = General

S = Scientific

L = Latin

* No students from the UU class were found in the Yankee City High School.

Adapted from W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941), p. 364.

students at the University of Kentucky found a disproportionate number of youth from economically favored homes.⁴ Other studies tend to support the contention that college attendance in-

⁴ Leila C. Deasy and Arnold C. Anderson, "Selectivity in the University," *Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. 24 (March, 1953), pp. 113-120.

dicates membership in one of the higher social classes.⁵ There is some question as to the amount and type of education taken by youth from various social levels.⁶ For example, it is probably true that a vast majority of the high school students from the upper socioeconomic classes are taking a college preparatory curriculum. Education can restrict as well as promote social mobility.

Expectations of Parents

Because schools in the United States are subject to local control, citizens in most communities are able to elect the school board members who select administrative officials and teachers. Consequently the attitudes and expectations of parents are an important influence on schools and the work of teachers. Not only do some parents endeavor to keep the schools as they were in the "good old days" of their youth, many of them demand that schools serve their children as the elevators to social status, college admission, and financial success, regardless of the abilities of particular students.

The impact of parental expectations on school programs is clearly evident in the expansion of curricular offerings that has taken place in secondary schools during the past half-century. Demands of parents for particular types of courses to prepare their children for a variety of vocations have resulted in the addition of technical studies to the school program. Similarly, parents' interests in recreational, sports, and aesthetic opportunities for young people have played an important part in bringing many extracurricular activities—such as music, art, dramatics, sports, and journalism—into the regular school offerings.

Often the demands of parents are highly individualistic. Most frequently, however, parental expectations operate as forces that influence the school through the organized efforts of parent groups such as the Parent-Teacher Association, citizen's council, or school advisory committee. However the influence may come, teachers find that it is persistent, often forceful, and beneficial

⁵ Kate H. Muller and John H. Muller, "Class Structure and Academic Social Success," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 13 (Autumn, 1953), pp. 486-496.

⁶ James S. Davis, "Social Class Factors and School Attendance," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 23 (Summer, 1953), pp. 175-185.

as well as detrimental. The greater the interest in education in given communities, the more likely are parents to organize to make their desires known to school boards and to school authorities. The better the school, the more welcome such expressions of parental attitudes are likely to be.

Organized Groups

America has aptly been described as a nation of joiners. "It is natural for the ordinary American," wrote Gunnar Myrdal in *An American Dilemma*, "when he sees something wrong to feel not only that there should be a law against it, but also that an organization should be formed to combat it." This inclination to form or join an organized group has produced more than 200,000 voluntary organizations—associations, lodges, clubs, societies—in the United States with total memberships of over 80 million people. Not infrequently do various types of these groups bring pressure on schools and teachers to accomplish goals endorsed by members.

Several nation-wide bodies have education as their primary reason for existence. For example, the widely known National Congress of Parents and Teachers attempts to promote mutual understanding between those who are most directly concerned with the process of education—parents and teachers. In addition, this organization works to unite the efforts of citizens to improve schools generally throughout the nation. On the local level, member associations can take credit for many improvements in schools, teacher welfare, and the care of children and youth. The National Citizen's Council for Better Schools, whose functions have been assumed by the National School Boards Association, attempted to rouse leadership for improving education in individual communities. Teachers' organizations, including the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, and the organizations of teachers in various subject fields, also give support to the improvement of schools, particularly to those aspects that relate to the welfare of teachers.

One type of organization which is giving increased attention to the strengthening of education is represented by the philanthropic foundations which support various aspects of educational developments. An indication of their possible impact can be

gained from the breakdown of their assets and expenditures presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3

FOUNDATIONS, PUBLIC TRUSTS AND FUNDS

Assets signify total endowments; expenditures are for
fiscal or calendar year.
In thousands of dollars.

	Assets	Expend.
Altman Foundation	11,394	474
Anderson (M.D.) Foundation	28,464	1,856
Assn. for the Aid of Crippled Children	14,000	778
Avalon Foundation	74,328	2,473
Benwood Foundation	9,839	1,244
Boettcher Foundation	10,833	478
Buhl Foundation	13,182	445
Callaway Community Foundation	10,000	750
Campbell (John Bulow) Foundation	12,318	508
Carnegie Corp. of New York	196,547	7,033
Carnegie Endowment for International Peace ..	18,832	770
Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching	12,654	1,483
Carnegie Hero Fund Comm.	9,618	203
Carnegie Institute of Washington	82,412	2,393
Chicago Community Trust	22,555	1,231
Childs (Jane Coffin) Memorial Fund	8,774	388
China Medical Board	39,698	746
Cleveland Foundation	22,749	1,104
Commonwealth Fund	82,739	3,803
Cranbrook Foundation	9,220	412
Danforth Foundation	27,398	2,913
Donner Foundation	23,846	1,350
El Pomar Foundation	17,297	1,299
Elks National Foundation	6,045	218
Fels (Samuel S.) Fund	12,930	1,196
Field Foundation	18,021	570
Fleischmann (Max C.) Foundation	50,649	2,499
Ford Foundation	565,601	85,000
Ford Motor Co. Fund	23,632	3,007
Fund for Adult Education	11,837	3,437
Fund for the Advancement of Education	11,175	4,239
Fund for the Republic ...	5,614	1,492

TABLE 3 Continued

	Assets	Expend.
Georgia Warm Springs Foundation	5,523	2,202
Grant Foundation	11,798	1,334
Guggenheim (Daniel & Florence) Foundation ..	8,270	381
Guggenheim (John Simon) Memorial Foundation	45,000	1,500
Guggenheim (Murry & Leonie) Foundation ...	18,085	807
Hayden (Charles) Foundation	68,741	2,376
Higgins Scientific Trust	41,200	1,500
Hill (Louis W. & Maud) Family Foundation	21,964	1,217
Hogg Foundation for Mental Health	6,000	350
Houston Endowment	37,803	976
Hyams (Godfrey M.) Trust	11,193	980
Indianapolis Foundation	8,722	288
Juilliard Musical Foundation	22,932	835
Kellogg (W. K.) Foundation	178,580	5,559
Kenny (Sister Elizabeth) Foundation	5,850	5,025
Kresge Foundation	92,378	3,101
Kress (Samuel H.) Foundation	8,985	1,983
Lilly Endowment	157,015	4,127
Macy (Josiah, Jr.) Foundation	34,000	1,150
Markle (John & Mary) Foundation	22,819	1,212
Mayo Association	57,000	1,073
McGregor Fund	13,197	1,506
Mellon (A. W.) Educational and Charitable Trust	22,012	4,200
Millbank Memorial Fund	17,377	668
Nelson (William Rockhill) Trust ..	12,308	335
New York Community Trust	32,616	1,400
New York Foundation	16,652	1,022
Nutrition Foundation	7,681	5,794
Old Dominion Foundation	16,654	17,777
Olin Foundation	36,663	2,963
Permanent Charity Fund	16,625	751
Philadelphia Foundation	3,296	200
Pittsburgh Foundation	6,669	434
Prentiss (Elizabeth Severance) Foundation ..	14,600	513
Research Corporation	10,656	1,654
Reynolds (Z. Smith) Foundation	30,000	972
Rockefeller Brothers Fund ..	53,174	4,053
Rockefeller Foundation	576,661	25,116
Runyon (Damon) Memorial Fund for Cancer Research	13,014	981

TABLE 3 Continued

	Assets	Expend.
Sage (Russell) Foundation	24,433	829
Scaife (Sarah Mellon) Foundation	12,619	2,835
Sloan (Alfred P.) Foundation	175,553	6,208
Southern Education Foundation	4,632	286
Surdna Foundation	24,369	2,761
Trexler Foundation	13,831	434
Turrell Fund	6,758	564
Twentieth Century Fund	17,552	688
Whitehead (Joseph B.) Foundation	5,723	342
Whitney (Helen Hay) Foundation	7,497	190
Wieboldt Foundation	5,907	246
Woodrow Wilson Natl. Fellowship Foundation	24,000	5,000
Woodruff (Emily & Ernest) Foundation	24,829	227

SOURCE: Harry Hansen, ed., *The World Almanac* (New York: The New York World-Telegram and Sun, 1960), p. 498.

Foundations are established by individuals and groups to support worthwhile projects in the public interest. Tax laws offer tax advantages to those who contribute to foundations. Furthermore, because the foundations are nonprofit, they pay no taxes; consequently, their total revenue is available to allocate each year to projects. In general, philanthropic foundations invest funds to help solve critical problems that confront people. Inasmuch as education has come to be recognized as the crucial element in the continuation of self-government, free enterprise, and progress in various aspects of human endeavor, it is to be expected that an increasing number of major foundations will direct increasing amounts of their financial resources to help strengthen educational programs. The projects selected for support, the research conducted, the procedures publicized by foundations bear substantial weight in directing the course of American education.

Numerous other organized groups, although they do not exist primarily to work in the interests of education, exercise influence over schools. Their impact may be direct; may be made through pressure on school boards, through members of the legislature or the national Congress; or it may be subtle, accomplished by influencing public opinion and the attitudes of

school officials. Some such groups boldly attempt to exercise censorship over textbooks or to provide materials of instruction that are in accord with the points of view they desire to see inculcated into the training of the young; others oppose school expansion and improvements to protect vested interests. Whatever the motive of given groups, in a democratic society each is free to exert its influence on the school and on teachers.

Influential Individuals

The impact made by influential individual citizens at local, state and national levels is often overlooked when the forces that affect schools are examined. People of influence usually hold positions of importance in a community; they may head what social scientists, such as C. Wright Mills,¹ call the "power structure" and be experts in creating public consent for action on projects they favor. They may also block change that they consider undesirable. Often influential individuals hold status positions in the management of political affairs, on school boards and city councils, or they are officers in major business and industrial organizations which are influential with large numbers of people.

The professional educator, including the classroom teacher, may well become an influential figure whose opinions and attitudes toward education exert substantial influence on the nature and quality of education in a community or wider region. Often successful and respected teachers in a school system gain a wide following for their views on education. College professors may achieve leadership positions that commend their recommendations on a nation-wide basis. Perhaps the best recent example of the manner in which a professional person may individually influence education is the impact on the secondary school of the studies and views of James Bryant Conant, whom the editors of *Time* magazine called the "Inspector General" of American education. In the leadership of one man, a distinguished educator and a former president of Harvard University, the conviction that quality can be achieved in comprehensive high schools is being widely implanted in the minds of both citizens and professional teachers.

¹ C. Wright Mills, *The Power Elite* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1958).

The leadership of the professional educator, such as that of Dr. Conant, contrasts and often conflicts with the influence of the commercial critic who makes a business—and usually a good income—from attacks against the schools. Such individuals, although they may openly or secretly align themselves with the vested interests of particular groups, usually attempt to establish themselves and their views as controversial to attract attention and gain support. Typically they indulge in extravagant assertions about the weaknesses of educational programs and attack the leadership of schools. Since their object is to capitalize upon the insecurities people feel about their schools, they do not hesitate to deal in half-truths or outright errors to arouse public consternation. It is easy at times to include among commercial critics of education some well-intentioned citizens whose anxiety about various aspects of education is such that they advocate radical changes without proper attention to facts and the basic ideals which give direction to education in a democratic society.

International Conditions

Two fundamentally incompatible ideologies are today engaged in a struggle for world leadership that is popularly called a "cold war." Despite the fact that education is coming to be recognized as the major instrument by which this conflict will ultimately be won or resolved, the exigencies of military preparedness greatly reduce the financial resources available to strengthen schools.

At the same time, public opinion is molded by the changing world events and in turn influences the subjects emphasized in school programs. During the period when McCarthyism was at its peak following World War II, for example, some teachers were not permitted to teach about Soviet Communism. Even study of the United Nations was ruled a subject "too hot to teach" in some communities. Then with the dramatic demonstration through the launching of Sputnik I that Russian satellite research was more advanced than that of the United States, attitudes toward the study about Russia changed almost overnight.* As a result, some American schools attempted to introduce

* Excellent references on Soviet education are George Z. F. Bereday, William W. Brickman, and Gerald H. Read, eds., *The Changing Soviet School* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960); and Lawrence G. Derthick, "The Frightening Challenge of Russia's Schools," *Look* (October 14, 1958).

courses in Russian language and history. In addition, the emphasis on science and mathematics, in the interests of national defense, represents a force that may well change the total balance of education. In short, international conditions influence schools and the work of teachers.

Ironically, education in the United States faces new obligations and responses to international conditions out of long, and deeply cherished, nationalistic traditions. Just as the nation has hidden behind the Monroe Doctrine to avoid foreign entanglements, schools have sought to inculcate in students high patriotism to our unique and privileged isolated status as a nation apart from the rest of the world. No inference is intended here that nationalism is bad, or that pupils should not be taught to be loyal to the United States. Actually, nationalism embodies the common beliefs of a people. It serves as a source of unity and inspiration and helps a nation remain strong militarily. But nationalism must be attuned to the international relationships that are inescapable today for the United States in its role as a leader of free nations throughout the world.

Mass Media of Communication

An important part of the social milieu in which pupils live is made up of television, newspapers, magazines, radio, and movies. Mass media of communication take up a great deal of young people's time. One study indicated that elementary school children watch television an average of 17 hours a week.*

The extent to which mass media influence attitudes and concepts of young people is not known definitely. That is, no one can say that one-tenth of a person's attitude is a result of radio, television, movies, and printed material. But it can be stated with accuracy that such media of communication are forces that affect schools because they affect children.

Then, too, mass media help to shape public opinion toward education. Not infrequently school bond issues or budgets are defeated or passed in accordance with the attitude of those who control newspapers, radio, and TV.

With the developments in television teaching, the total process

* Paul Witty, "Children's Reactions to TV—A Fourth Report," *Elementary English*, Vol. 30 (November, 1953), pp. 444-451.

of instruction itself is undergoing serious study. New experiments with teacher teams are endeavoring to find ways of extending, via television, the contributions of outstanding teachers to increasing numbers of students, while utilizing the abilities of teachers in the classroom to give greater personal assistance to individual pupils.

ECONOMIC FORCES AFFECT SCHOOLS

The general state of the economy—the amount of money in circulation and the ease with which it circulates—determines to some extent the amount of money that is available for the support of schools. The status and role of a person in the economic order and his economic beliefs affect his point of view toward educational programs and influence his attitude toward tax rates for the support of schools. The curriculum of schools is influenced by the employment demands of business and industry.

The National Economy

The amount of money a country can devote to public schools is determined by various factors, the most important being the

TABLE 4

FAMILY INCOME LEVEL, SELECTED YEARS

Family Personal Income (Before Income Taxes)	Number of Families (In Thousands)			Percentage Distributions		
	1935	1946	1957*	1935	1946	1957
Under \$1,000	16,718	3,826	7,512	43.5	8.8	14.0
\$1,000- 1,999	13,121	7,606		34.2	17.6	
2,000- 2,999	5,050	8,791	5,352	13.1	20.3	10.0
3,000- 3,999	1,702	8,590	6,672	4.4	19.8	12.5
4,000- 4,999	642	5,384	7,006	1.7	12.4	13.1
5,000- 5,999	604	3,065	6,396	1.8	7.1	11.9
6,000- 7,499		2,547	7,320		5.9	13.7
7,500- 9,999	231	1,751	6,626	0.6	4.0	12.4
10,000-14,999	342	1,070	4,206	0.9	2.5	7.9
15,000 and over		720	2,420		1.6	4.5

* Latest data available.

SOURCE: Adapted from National Industrial Conference Board, *The Economic Almanac* (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1956), p. 372; National Industrial Conference Board, *The Economic Almanac* (New York: Newsweek, 1960), p. 334.

national income. Level of general income, in turn, depends upon employment and wages. The distribution of income is an important factor insofar as support for education is concerned because of the schools' dependence upon local taxes. The facts and figures on family personal income for selected years are presented in Table 4 to illustrate two basic trends in the national income of the United States. First, the income per family has risen appreciably during the last 25 years. Second, the total income has become more widely and evenly distributed since 1935. Both these factors enhance the possibility of developing a tax system that will adequately support schools regardless of their geographical location.

Economic Beliefs

Capitalism, the economic system of the United States, has these predominant characteristics:

1. Individuals, not the state, own the means of production (machinery, land, natural resources, factories).
2. The capitalistic system depends on a market economy (principle of supply and demand).
3. Competition is an essential characteristic of capitalism.
4. The profit principle is respected in a capitalistic system.

What are the implications of American capitalism for schools? Does it make any difference in the national economy and its effect upon schools? Does capitalism make demands for particular skills and knowledges that should be taught in the schools? Answers to questions such as these suggest the effect that the economic system has on educational programs and the work of teachers.

Skills Required by Business and Industry

When the United States was an agrarian society the skills and knowledge required of workers were simple, even primitive. As technological developments occurred, business and industry became more complex, requiring workers with highly developed skills. Business and industry have looked to schools and colleges for educated individuals. Consequently, demands upon the schools for trained graduates have steadily increased. People who can build and operate complex business machines, factory machines, and other types of equipment are needed just as are

highly educated professional people for executive positions. Engineers and other specialists are required in more and more industries. Secretaries and clerical personnel in general are expected to be well educated. As business and industry continue to grow in size and complexity, the educational background of personnel must increase in both breadth and depth.

Technological Changes

Machines are now being used to run other machines—automation is a reality. Its full implications for education are as yet impossible to visualize. Already observable is the fact that as industries turn to automatic machines, new jobs are created to produce the machines. Such new jobs require a higher level of training and skill than those replaced by automation. The educational implications, particularly in the fields of technology and the sciences, are obvious.

The process of education itself may well be affected by the impact of technological developments that help to carry out phases of the instructional program of the school. Industry, and the armed forces, have utilized with success automatic machines to provide routine instruction, thus freeing the teacher for other activities. Experiments with teaching machines at Harvard University suggest that certain types of learning may be conducted by the student with the help of a teaching instrument that poses questions and automatically evaluates responses. Developments in the field of electronics bring to the school possibilities in the field of audio-visual resources that promise to enrich and accelerate learning.¹⁰

There are far-reaching implications for education in the individual's increased leisure time made possible by technological inventions. As people are required to work less, they undoubtedly will call upon schools to help with programs of continuing education for leisure and citizenship efficiency. Yet new jobs require new skills; consequently, in education for adults, greater emphasis may need to be placed on adapting workers to the changing requirements of a technological age.

¹⁰ See Eugene Galanter, *Automatic Teaching: The State of the Art* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958).

RELIGIOUS FORCES AFFECT SCHOOLS

Religion, a vital force in the United States, flourishing as it does through the efforts of over 260 organized sects, impinges on education in a variety of ways. Diversity in religious background and faiths produces crosscurrents of vested interests that press against the efforts of teachers and school officials to maintain schools which, while stressing commonly recognized moral and spiritual values, remain neutral and separate from religious control. Examples of the ways in which religious forces affect schools include: religious bias in the selection of teachers, efforts to provide tax support for parochial schools, opposition to federal support of public education, and the struggle to have religion taught by public schools.

Religious Bias in the Selection of Teachers

In spite of the expressed dedication to, and legal prescription for, keeping public schools strictly nonsectarian, subtle ways are found in some communities to employ teachers committed to particular religious faiths. Historically, teachers in some communities have been required to teach Sunday School classes, in particular churches, as conditions of their employment. Although this practice has been discontinued generally, the dominant religious denominations of communities, when such exist, may well influence the choice of teachers.

In some communities, the superintendent of schools may be substantially subject to the influence of his church as to the performance of his educational duties. The practice that sometimes prevails of employing an assistant superintendent to "represent" a particularly strong religious minority in the community illustrates further the extent to which religious bias may enter into the selection of school personnel.

Tax Support for Parochial Schools

Attempts by religious groups to obtain tax support for parochial schools have been going on since the 1830's. Governor Seward was pressed by both Protestants and Catholics to use state funds for the support of parochial schools in New York. Attempts were made in Massachusetts by the Presbyterians, Catholics, and Epis-

copalians to obtain aid from the General Assembly for denominational schools. All these efforts were unsuccessful. Most state constitutions—in fact, all states admitted to the Union since 1858, except West Virginia—expressly prohibit support to religious schools from tax funds.

While state funds have been protected from those who would breach the “wall of separation between church and state,” federal tax funds have not been so restricted. Under the premise that tax revenue may go to the child and not to a religious organization—with reference to the general welfare clause of the Constitution—federal funds are used to defray costs of transportation to school and to provide certain health services for children who attend parochial schools. Efforts continue to obtain more tax funds for the support of parochial schools.

Opposition to Federal Support for Public Education

The force of religion has been employed to block the use of federal financial resources for public schools. The overt arguments in Congress against proposals for federal aid to public education usually center on the dangers of federal control. Actually, however, the opposition in Congress can also be attributed to the influence of certain religious groups which strongly resist any type of federal support for education unless church schools are permitted to share in the allocations along with public schools.

Struggle to Have Religion Taught by Public Schools

The insistence that because public schools do not teach religion they are “Godless,” the efforts to introduce religious instruction into public school programs, the stressing of certain religious rituals such as reciting the Lord’s Prayer and the Christian celebration of Christmas—all are evidences of either subtle or direct efforts to obtain the teaching of religion by public schools. Court rulings to the contrary, pressure is brought in many situations on teachers and school officials to evade the law. In general, the more homogeneous a community with respect to religious denominations, the more likely it is to press for the inclusion of religion in its schools. Yet, certain religious groups have taken a firm stand against the teaching of religion in public schools because of their conviction that the principle of separation of church

and state is the only valid course that can be taken to preserve the public schools and to assure the continuation of a nation in which freedom of religion prevails.

SCIENTIFIC FORCES AFFECT SCHOOLS

The nature of the world and universe—their physical properties and natural laws—is the subject matter of science. The discovery of truth, the organization of knowledge, and the distillation of wisdom based on facts are its objectives. Organized and systematic inquiry is its method. The end product is the harnessing of the forces of nature for the service of man. The rapid development of science during the twentieth century has added numerous forces that influence educational programs as well as the work of teachers.

Science is important to schools (1) as a subject for study, (2) as a method of inquiry and instruction, (3) in its relation to the ancient field of philosophy, and (4) with respect to the new inventions it makes possible. Although the wonders of science are such that many fear its release, it must be recognized that the scientific research of modern times has given to man higher standards of living, better health, longer life, and the means for greater enjoyment of his existence as well.

Science—A Subject for Study

When science was introduced into the curriculum of the secondary school at Benjamin Franklin's Philadelphia Academy in 1751, it represented only a rudimentary organization of the natural laws which experience had substantiated. As a field of study, its content was so limited and its prestige so low that it was viewed only as an exploratory aspect of the more historic Latin curriculum. Science has now so established itself as a field basic to man's existence and total search for knowledge that its study is considered an integral aspect of every student's preparation for life.

In addition to the emphasis placed upon the general education values of the study of science, dramatic steps are being taken to improve the preparation of science teachers and to make certain that students with aptitude for scientific study are guided into advanced courses in science. The importance of the study

of science to national defense has been recognized by the federal government. The National Science Foundation, supported by congressional appropriations, has taken responsibility for organizing courses for science teachers and for generally encouraging the improvement of science programs in schools. Priorities for federal college scholarship loans are given to students specializing in science.

The awareness of the importance of science as a field of study and the emphasis being given to it constitute a force that helps to shape the direction and programs of schools at all levels. Without doubt, many schools will install the study of science as the central core of their curriculums, a position which in the past has been held by such subject fields as Greek, Latin, theology, mathematics, history, philosophy, geography, and English. The problem of maintaining a proper and educationally healthy balance between science and other subjects in the school program is already being discussed in some schools. The task of adapting instruction in science to the general educational goals of the school is a formidable one. The provision of adequate scientific laboratories and up-to-date equipment will represent a drain on school budgets which are already grossly inadequate. These are examples of the impact of the emphasis on science as a field of study in schools today.

Science and Philosophy

Originally, the sciences were part of the field of philosophy. The theory of science is still considered the domain of philosophic scholars. In a strict sense, scientific inquiry is seen as beginning with philosophy, theory, and continuing through the stages of controlled experimentation, testing, to the stage of use, and application. The layman often confuses the relationship between philosophy and science by assuming that science is opposed to philosophy, and particularly that it undermines religious philosophy.

Scientific inquiry has won its way to respectability as a means of identifying truth and knowledge after undergoing a long and difficult persecution by advocates of the belief that truth is revealed rather than discovered. The reluctance of people to support early scientific research in such fields as physics, medicine,

and agriculture is well known. Examples of similar attitudes are to be found today toward the application of the method of science to the study of problems in education, politics, economics, and other social science fields.

Failure to recognize a natural relationship between science and philosophy and to accept the method of science as a procedure for studying problems in all fields is damaging to the process of education itself. Schools suffer when it is assumed that educational programs can be developed on the basis of theory alone, without adequate controlled testing. Conflicts between theory and the processes by which it is translated into knowledge limit the maximum efficiency of all educational ventures.

Scientific Inventions

A scholarly journal, *The American Scientist*, published a suggestion by Mortimer Ostow that the science of cybernetics can construct a machine which will simulate human behavior. All that is needed, claimed the author, is for the criteria and conditions of human behavior to be specified.¹¹ Substance to this claim was provided in a *Chicago Sun-Times* story on March 29, 1958, which reported the invention of an electronic typewriter, known as Tydac, that is equipped with a memory unit. This machine, which has a typing speed of 200 words a minute, can memorize and reproduce material as well as type by remote control.

The impact on educational programs of inventions like Tydac challenge the imagination. Consider, for example, the effect of this typewriter, when mass-produced, on programs of business education alone. One may easily imagine that subjects such as shorthand and typing will come to be taught in the future for supposedly mental disciplinary values, rather than for their traditional utility objectives. Similarly, other inventions may be expected to influence both the relative essentialness of aspects of the school curriculum as well as the instructional process itself.

¹¹ Mortimer Ostow, "Behavior Correlates of Neural Function," *American Scientist*, Vol. 43, No. 1 (January, 1955), p. 127.

Fear of Science

In the presidential election of 1956 one important issue debated was the danger from fall-out that resulted from test explosions of atomic bombs. The discussion caused tension which produced, in many cases, fear of science itself. While no one can assess accurately the effect of anxiety and tension resulting from the invention of new weapons of destruction, it is certain that the armament race affects the schools. Pressure has been placed upon the schools to "keep us ahead of Russia," whatever that means.

Fear of science is exhibited in another manner. It is common for people to be rather prejudiced against technical or scientific originality. Euclid developed geometry many years before people dared make any practical use of it. Plato has been quoted as having said that the application of geometry to land measurement would "vulgarize mathematics." Archimedes supposedly rationalized his mechanical inventions by claiming they were "merely for his own diversion and amusement." People who fear science today may oppose its development in educational progress; thus they will prevent schools from keeping abreast of their heavy obligations to the new scientific age.

Research

Science seeks to extend the bounds of human knowledge through research. The scientific attitude is research-oriented—nothing is looked upon as fixed and unchanging. Many fields such as physics, agriculture, medicine, psychology, and education are engaged in continuous observation and experimentation.

Billions of dollars are going into the support of research. Some research funds come from the federal government, some from private enterprise, and some from foundations. The continuing expenditure of huge sums in a quest for new knowledge indicates how seriously mankind is trying to identify and use truth. This is also a purpose of schools. The aims of education—the subject of the next chapter—are influenced profoundly by the prevailing concept of truth.

SUMMARY

Society, like a machine, is composed of various functionally interrelated parts; all must function smoothly, or maladjustments will result. When imbalances occur, such as a depression or the discovery of methods for the release of atomic energy, the efforts exerted to restore compatibility and harmonious relationships may be called forces. Such general forces may be social or political, economic, religious, or scientific; yet all in one way or another affect schools.

Social and political forces that affect schools are rooted initially to the ideals which give direction to the society. These are influenced by the customs, mores, and traditions that people accept as a part of their culture. They receive their mandate for influencing school programs from the legal enactments of legislatures and boards of education as well as from the judicial decisions that interpret the intent of laws. Population factors, the expectations of parents, the efforts of organized groups, the force of strong leaders, international conditions, and the developments in the field of mass communications are all additional social and political forces with which schools and teachers must contend.

Economic issues and circumstances that make an impact on education are numerous and diverse. The state of the national economy governs to some extent the amount of money that is devoted to the financial support of schools. In turn, the amount of money expended for schools largely determines the quality and extent of their educational programs. The economic beliefs prevalent in a country make important demands upon the schools—pupils in the United States are expected to learn the virtues of capitalism. Business and industry often expect the schools to equip pupils with skills and knowledge needed by productive employees. Technological changes require highly educated innovators and personnel capable of adapting to new conditions.

As a vital factor in American life, religious forces are felt by public schools. The selection of teachers is sometimes influenced by religious bias of school officials. Some religious groups would weaken the financial support of public education by diverting tax funds to parochial schools.

Science is another important field that affects public schools.

The method of science—that of scientific inquiry—is used in subjects in elementary and secondary schools. Science and philosophy are compatible and interrelated because both contribute to the search for truth. Inventions cause changes in living patterns which, in turn, produce changes in educational programs. Paradoxically, though people often welcome inventions, they fear the new and unknown. Hence, technical or scientific originality is sometimes penalized. Despite fear of the unknown, science continues its insatiable quest for new knowledge and new truths. The results it achieves affect school programs and the work of teachers.

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"Whom, then, do I call educated?" asked Isocrates in his search for the aims of education. In answering his own question, the philosopher expressed several ideas that are acceptable to many today—Isocrates called educated those "who manage well the circumstances which they encounter day by day. . . ." and those who "are decent and honorable in their intercourse with all men, hearing easily and good-naturedly what is unpleasant and offensive in others. . . ." The most important characteristic of educated people, he thought, is that they "are not spoiled by their successes, and do not desert their true selves, but hold their ground steadfastly as wise and sober men. . . ."

Others have faced the question, "What should education accomplish?" Educators as well as citizens, individually and collectively, have attempted to devise statements of aims of education that would gain general acceptance. So far, none has met with complete success. Their failure is due to both the diversity and the change that characterize a free society. Though endeavors to enumerate a definitive list of educational objectives suitable to all, and good for all times, have not been entirely successful, it is possible to develop and maintain reasonably constant working compromises regarding the aims of education.

Various taxonomies of educational aims are available today. Most of these represent rather highly generalized concepts of the purposes of education in relationship to a democratic society. Other types of statements deal with the specific emphases that should be made to achieve the over-all goals. In addition, statements of aims have been developed at the level of the local school system to serve as actual working guide lines to keep school practices attuned to the values and aspirations of individual communities.

EDUCATIONAL AIMS REFLECT VALUE SYSTEMS

The achievement of general agreement on the aims of education is complicated by the diversities in attitudes, feelings, and convictions that prevail among people, even those who are well educated. Such differences exist because any statement of aims is predicated upon human values and judgments. Education, of necessity, must be essentially a program of social action; as such, it can only be guided by the values that people hold.

Nature of Values

The term *value* is used in a variety of contexts. Precisely, what does it mean when applied to social programs? According to a well-known social scientist, Clyde Kluckhohn,¹ "A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action."

Values might be thought of as being on a continuum ranging from mild preferences to intense convictions. The relative strength of values held by an individual is indicated by the decisions he makes. Whether to purchase a new car or take a trip to Europe, to attend the opera or go fishing, to vote yes or no on a proposed tax increase for schools, and countless other judgments are made in accordance with the importance attached to one thing as compared to something else by the person who makes the decision. In essence, then, the most meaningful definition of value is that it is an individual's perception of the worth of something.

Impact of Values on Educational Goals

The educational implications of values have received attention from philosophers, anthropologists, and other social scientists. Brameld, for example, studied the problems of cultural relativism and cultural universalism.² By cultural relativism is meant that values and goals of people who live in different cultures are relative to time and place. According to Brameld, "cultural relativism

¹ Clyde Kluckhohn, in Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, eds., *Toward a General Theory of Action* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951), p. 395.

² Theodore Brameld, *Cultural Foundations of Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957).

lends credence to the view that all nations and all races are equal in the sense that each possesses its own pattern of values none of which can be adjudged to be better or worse than any other pattern." Though many educators and citizens would subscribe to the impartiality inherent in cultural relativism, most reveal their own ethnocentric values when they state what should be taught, and how, in the public schools.

The objectivity and "benign intercultural *laissez-faire*" implicit in cultural relativism are far from realization in practice. As Brameld points out, ". . . innumerable students are indoctrinated . . . in beliefs that tend to reinforce their prejudices." Such practices are commonplace in school rooms in many countries. It follows that "the teaching of history, art, politics, religion, and many other fields needs to be more strictly governed by the indubitable principle that, in one sense, people of different periods, places, customs, and creeds are *not* to be judged deficient or inferior by virtue of their differences."

David Bidney, a philosopher, emphasizes the necessity of cultural universalism.³ His position is that certain values are universally desirable. He believes in the necessity of studies that will "demonstrate universal principles of cultural dynamics and concrete rational norms capable of universal realization." Kluckhohn also reinforces this point of view with the belief that "all talk of an eventual peaceful and orderly world is but pious cant or sentimental fantasy unless there are, in fact, some simple but powerful things in which all men can believe, some codes or canons that have or can obtain universal acceptance."⁴

Whatever labels may be used to identify philosophies or value systems—pragmatism, idealism, reconstructionism, cultural relativism, or cultural universalism—one point is clear. In an era of "organization men" and "other-directedness" it is imperative that educators focus attention on ultimate goals and values rather than on opportunistic, materialistic, or expedient objectives of the moment.

³ David Bidney, *Theoretical Anthropology* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1953).

⁴ Clyde Kluckhohn, *Modern Education and Human Values*, Pittcairn-Crabbe Foundation Lecture Series, Vol. 4 (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1952), p. 87.

Achieving Common Agreement on Aims

The achievement of common agreement on the aims of education is complicated by several factors. First, even professions of agreement relative to aims may be highly tenuous, or they may be weakened by differences in weight or priority assigned to particular aims or emphases. Second, because the language by which aims are stated often enjoys no exact meaning, differences in interpretation frequently develop. Third, as noted by Hansen, the current public expectations of schools are sometimes paradoxical.⁵ Goals that the public claims for education are sometimes mutually exclusive. For example, some insist that pupils be taught to think critically; yet the same people demand a highly chauvinistic content for history courses. A fourth obstacle to common agreement on aims of education grows out of the wide diversity that characterizes the people of the United States.

Just as all social policy is a compromise in a free society, including the Constitution of the United States, so, too, are the aims of education. Common agreements with respect to goals for schools must be recognized as only tentative guides. Operational agreements, including aims of education, will, of course, be relatively dependable; but they will be always subject to change since differences in a democracy are never completely resolved.

SOURCES OF AIMS

The two major sources of aims for education are (1) the society itself, including its ideals, nature and structure, and struggle to survive as an organized way of life; and (2) the individuals who exist within the social matrix, each striving to achieve a degree of happiness, success, and security, while attempting to maintain suitable relationships with other human beings within the organized pattern of group life. From these two sources come the clichés: "the needs of society" and "the needs of the individual." Differences in educational objectives often are caused by the relative concern for the perpetuation of the group as contrasted to helping the individual satisfy personal educational

⁵ Kenneth H. Hansen, *Public Education in American Society* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), p. 77.

ambitions. Yet no sharp lines of demarcation may properly be drawn, except for purposes of analysis, between society and the individual as exclusive or differentiated bases for determining the aims of education. Goals of the society, in a democratic nation at least, may be realized only by helping individual citizens achieve their personal educational ambition; on the other hand, the individual's educational progress and attainment are limited when the objectives of the society are ignored.⁶

Societal Goals for Schools

The characteristics of a society, including its form of government, system of economics, provisions for individual and group welfare, racial as well as class groups—all comprise guide lines, either implicit or explicit, for schools. A nation with a rigid class system, such as India has maintained in the past, by its nature prohibits universality in education. On the other hand, a fluid class structure, such as the United States has provided, extends the benefits of schooling to all individuals regardless of social background or status.

Self-government is essential to the United States. In Russia, government is by the Communist Party which has a membership composed of only a small fraction of the total population. In the United States, therefore, universal, free public education is a mandate to schools; in Russia, intensive educational training for an intellectual and political elite group is emphasized. The one country provides a degree of individual freedom that permits each person to choose his life's work; the other allocates occupational assignments in accordance with the needs of the state and tested individual capacities. Each pattern provides unique directives for the program of education and the services provided by schools.

Societal needs give direction to education. The more authoritarian the system of government, the more likely the goals of the state to dominate completely the work of the schools. Democratic nations, on the other hand, recognize the state as a means to an end; they strive to strengthen the society by giving major atten-

⁶ This point is made forcefully by Mark Van Doren in "Freedom to Use the Mind," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 5 (May, 1960), pp. 10-12.

tion to helping individuals realize their maximum educational development.

Individual Requirements Provide Goals for Schools

Individual requirements are dictated, first of all, by the necessities of existence—food, clothing, shelter. They become more complex when the individual exists in a civilized society which exerts pressures for health, sanitation, vocational proficiency, citizenship participation, cultural attainments, and recreational skills. Essentially, in even the most primitive cultures, the individual's environment plays an important part in determining the personal needs which must be met through education. Inasmuch as environments differ, and change continuously, concepts of individual requirements are modified by new theories, added knowledge, and insights relative to the interaction between the individual and his culture. As ideas of personal needs change, perceptions are also altered as to the objectives of education and the processes by which such goals are best achieved for each individual.

Not many years ago, inert facts were drilled into the minds of all pupils, by equal rates and in equal quantities, in the belief that such an educational procedure was best adapted to the educational requirements of students. Today, with the increased knowledge that research in the behavioral sciences has produced, the process of education is seen as a vastly more complex endeavor. It is recognized, too, that the individual human being reacts to learning situations with a total composite of responses involving not only mental but social, physical, and emotional processes as well.

It was of this interaction between the individual and his environment that Walt Whitman wrote:

There was a child went forth every day,
And the first object he looked upon, that object he became,
And that object became part of him for the day or a certain part of
the day,
Or for many years or stretching cycles of years.

The early lilacs became part of this child,
And grass and white and red morning-glories, and white and red clover,

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And that object became part of him for the day or a certain part of
the day,

Or for many years or stretching cycles of years.

The early lilacs became part of this child,
And grass and white and red morning-glories, and white and red clover,

and the song of the phoebe-bird . . .

And all the changes of city and country wherever he went. . . .

The family usages, the language, the company, the furniture, the yearning and swelling heart,

Affection that will not be gainsaid, the sense of what is real, the thought if after all it should prove unreal,

The doubts of day-time and the doubts of night-time, the curious whether and how,

Whether that which appears so is so, or is it all flashes and specks?

Men and women crowding fast in the streets, if they are not flashes and specks what are they?

The streets themselves and the façades of houses, and goods in the windows,

Vehicles, teams, the heavy-planked wharves, the huge crossing at the ferries,

The village on the highland seen from afar at sunset, the river between, Shadows, aureola and mist, the light falling on roofs and gables of white or brown two miles off,

The schooner near by sleepily dropping down the tide, the little boat slack-towed astern,

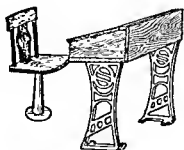
The hurrying tumbling waves, quick-broken crests, slapping . . .

These become part of that child who went forth every day, and who now goes forth, and will always go forth every day.

Specific Reference Points as Sources of Aims

The basic categories from which educational aims are drawn—the society and the individual—provide a number of specific reference points which serve as clues to the study of the sources of educational objectives. These aspects of societal and individual characteristics are studied by scholars in such fields as philosophy, educational theory, and the behavioral sciences as bases for definitions of the objectives of education. Figure 9 suggests, in simple diagrammatic form, the order and relationship of the process.

The various reference points available to help determine the aims of education suggest further the reasons for differences that prevail in projected goals for schools from community to community. They indicate, too, one of the major reasons why systems of education are largely indigenous to the society which they serve.



TOP RIGHT: A classroom circa 1910. This disciplined class—children with their hands folded and silent until called on to recite by rote—was typical of the system against which John Dewey revolted (see pages 40–41). (Photo, Brown Brothers.)

ABOVE: A classroom of the Montrose Elementary School in Laredo, Texas. Here many of the children who enter school speak only Spanish and the older ones drop out of school during the agricultural season to work on farms. The administrators and teachers were faced with the problem of arranging differing levels of academic skill into a coherent school organization. The teachers attempt to capture interest, to make education appealing, and to impart learning through much use of films, and emphasis on music, art, and dancing. (Photo, Laredo Public Schools.)



Individuals differ in size, temperament, mental age, achievement, social adjustment, emotional responses, intellectual capacities, and interests. The professional preparation for teaching emphasizes the study of human development and the techniques by which teachers may observe, measure, analyze, and appraise the characteristics of both individual children and groups (see pages 212-215). (Photo, top left, Board of Education of the City of New York; photos top right and above, by James and Marcia Forman, Sands Point, N.Y.)

Even identical twins have individual differences which wise teachers recognize and for which they provide. (Photo by Jules Rosenthal, Madison, Wisconsin)



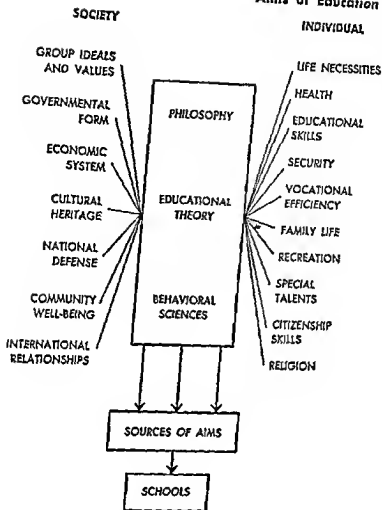


FIGURE 9.

SPECIFIC REFERENCE POINTS FOR AIMS OF EDUCATION

TAXONOMIES OF EDUCATIONAL AIMS

A number of key statements of educational aims have won wide acceptance in the United States in recent years. Similarities between points of emphasis in these proposals indicate the extent to which the American people agree upon certain objectives for their schools.

White House Conference on Education, 1955

The White House Conference on Education convened by President Eisenhower in 1955, assembled leaders in education and

other important fields to define the task of the elementary and secondary schools in the face of their greatly expanding enrollments and broadening responsibilities. The following statement of aims was developed by pooling the reports of numerous small subgroups which gave intensive study to the future of public education in the United States.⁷

It is the consensus of these groups that the schools should continue to develop:

1. The fundamental skills of communication—reading, writing, spelling as well as other elements of effective oral and written expression; the arithmetical and mathematical skills, including problem solving. While schools are doing the best job in their history in teaching these skills, continuous improvement is desirable and necessary.
2. Appreciation for our democratic heritage.
3. Civil rights and responsibilities and knowledge of American institutions.
4. Respect and appreciation for human values and for the beliefs of others.
5. Ability to think and evaluate constructively and creatively.
6. Effective work habits and self-discipline.
7. Social competency as a contributing member of his family and community.
8. Ethical behavior based on a sense of moral and spiritual values.
9. Intellectual curiosity and eagerness for life-long learning.
10. Aesthetic appreciation and self-expression in the arts.
11. Physical and mental health.
12. Wise use of time, including constructive leisure pursuits.
13. Understanding of the physical world and man's relation to it as represented through basic knowledge of the sciences.
14. An awareness of our relationships with the world community.

These specific objectives for education are based on both the individual and societal requirements of life in the United States. The Preface of the White House Conference Reports states:

"We believe that education is necessary for the fullest development and enrichment of the individual."

"Education is a sound and necessary investment in the future well-being of our Nation and its citizens."

⁷ *The Reports of the White House Conference on Education*, Washington, D.C., November 23–December 1, 1955 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1955, pp. 1–2).

Objectives for Education Urged by Educational Policies Commission

The Educational Policies Commission represents both the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators and is therefore a key agency of the teaching profession for influencing the direction for public education. Its statement of objectives has been recognized for almost a quarter of a century as both comprehensive and authoritatively compatible with the responsibilities of education in a democratic nation both to the individual and to society.*

Four aspects of educational purpose have been identified. These aspects center around the person himself, his relationships to others in home and community, the creation and use of material wealth, and sociocivic activities. . . . The four great groups of objectives thus defined are:

1. The Objectives of Self-Realization
2. The Objectives of Human Relationship
3. The Objectives of Economic Efficiency
4. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

Each of these is related to each of the others. Each is capable of further subdivision.

The detailed aspects of the aims of the Educational Policies Commission are presented in Figure 10.

White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1960

In 1960, approximately 7,000 citizens from throughout the United States, in response to a summons from the President, convened in Washington, D.C. to consider problems of importance in the education of the nation's youth. The Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth, whose participants were representatives of the professions, government, and various organizations, was devoted to three major topics: the family and social change, development and education of young people, and problems and prospects.

*Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1933), pp. 50, 72, 90, 108.

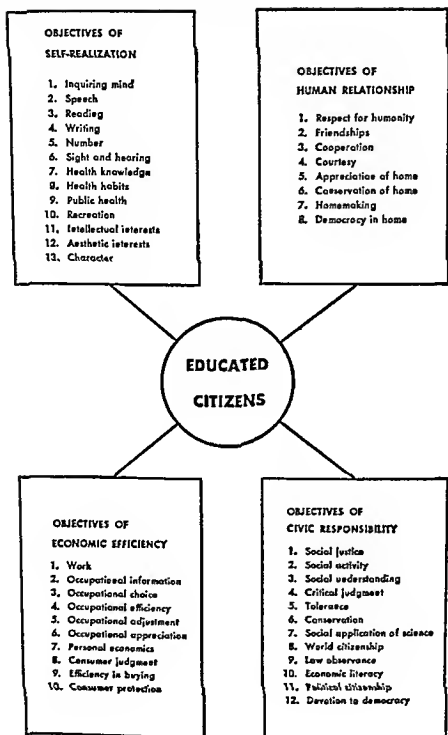


FIGURE 10.

OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

Adapted from Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1938).

In preparation for the conference, recognized experts prepared essays on important subjects to be considered. A paper by Ralph W. Tyler,⁹ entitled "Educational Objectives of American Democracy," reflects the importance attached to aims of education by the conference. Tyler pointed out that two primary purposes characterized education in the early days of the nation. For each person, "education was to provide the opportunity to realize his potential and to become a constructive and happy person in the station of life which he would occupy because of his birth and ability." Secondly, "For the nation, the education of each child was essential to provide a literate citizenry." According to Tyler, these two educational objectives are universally accepted now and three more aims have been added. These are social mobility, preparation of young people for the world of work, and developing "in students understanding and appreciation of the wide range of experiences, services, and goods which can contribute much to their health and satisfactions."

Paradoxically, as Tyler noted, the greater the success of public schools, the greater their vulnerability to criticism. The American public thinks of its schools as being able to undertake successfully any task of education and training assigned to them; and it sometimes, either tacitly or explicitly, makes impossible demands of them. Obviously, the schools cannot be all things to all men. Educators should search for and identify, and help the public to do likewise, defensible bases for the selection of tasks to be expected of the schools.

The Council for Basic Education

In 1956, the Council for Basic Education was organized. This group is devoted to the maintenance of quality in American education. According to the original statement of purpose, the Council:¹⁰

... was established in the belief that the purpose of education is the harmonious development of the mind, the will, and the conscience of

⁹ Ralph W. Tyler, "Educational Objectives of American Democracy," in Eli Ginzberg, *The Nation's Children*, Vol. 2, *Development and Education*, White House Conference on Children and Youth (New York: Columbia University Press, 1960), p. 70.

¹⁰ James D. Koerner, ed., *The Case for Basic Education* (Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1959), Preface.

each individual so that he may use to the full his intrinsic powers and shoulder the responsibilities of citizenship. It believes in the principle of universal education and in the tax-supported public school system. . . .

In its endeavor to strengthen basic education, the Council published a book by 18 distinguished authorities, to present "a statement about goals in education." The goals subscribed to are indicated in the Foreword as follows: ¹¹

Basic education concerns itself with those matters which, once learned, enable the student to learn all the other matters, whether trivial or complex, that cannot properly be the subjects of elementary and secondary schooling. In other words, both logic and experience suggest that certain subjects have generative power and others do not have generative power. . . .

It has, up to our time, been the general experience of men that certain subjects and not others possess this generative power. Among these subjects are those that deal with language, whether or not one's own; forms, figures and numbers; the laws of nature; the past; and the shape and behavior of our common home, the earth. Apparently these master or generative subjects endow one with the ability to learn the minor or self-terminating subjects. They also endow one, of course, with the ability to learn the higher, more complex developments of the master subjects themselves.

Subjects essential to the basic education of students, according to the Council, are citizenship, history, geography, English composition and literature, languages, mathematics and science, art, music, philosophy, and speech. The electives, art, music, philosophy and speech, are presented only as representative of a number of electives, some of which might be vocational subjects.

Aims for Education Proposed by Leading Scholars

Throughout the ages, leading scholars, representing various fields of inquiry including philosophy, science, religion, and education, have advanced their views concerning the aims of education. Some of the better-known proposals are summarized in Table 5 for purposes of comparison.

¹¹ Clifton Fadiman, "The Case for Basic Education," in *ibid.*, p. 6.

TABLE 5

AIMS EXPRESSED BY PHILOSOPHERS AND EDUCATORS

Scholars and Date of Birth	Statement of Aims
Socrates 469 B.C.	The aim of education is to dispel error and discover truth.
Plato 429 B.C.	Education consists of giving to the body and soul all the perfection of which they are susceptible.
Aristotle 384 B.C.	The true aim of education is the attainment of happiness through perfect virtue.
Martin Luther 1483 A.D.	The object of education is preparation for more effective service in church and state; training for duties of home, occupation, church, and state.
Michel de Montaigne 1533	Education, as a science itself, is but a means to an end—the dominance of man over things; human science and human power coincide. Man is but the servant and interpreter of nature; it can be commanded only by being obeyed; thus do human knowledge and human power really meet in one.
Johann Amos Comenius 1592	Education is a development of the whole man—the ultimate end of man is happiness with God.
Immanuel Kant 1724	The purpose of education is to train children, not with reference to their success in the present state of society but to a better possible state, in accordance with an ideal conception of humanity.
Heinrich Pestalozzi 1746	Education means a natural, progressive, and systematic development of all the powers.
Johann Friedrich Hebart 1776	The end of education is to produce a well-balanced many-sidedness of interest. Morality is universally acknowledged as the highest aim of humanity, and consequently of education.
Friedrich Froebel 1782	The object of an education is the realization of a faithful, pure, inviolate, and, hence, holy life.
Herbert Spencer 1820	To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge.
John Dewey 1859	Since growth is the characteristic of life, education is all one with growing; it has no end be-

each individual so that he may use to the full his intrinsic powers and shoulder the responsibilities of citizenship. It believes in the principle of universal education and in the tax-supported public school system. . . .

In its endeavor to strengthen basic education, the Council published a book by 18 distinguished authorities, to present "a statement about goals in education." The goals subscribed to are indicated in the Foreword as follows: ¹¹

Basic education concerns itself with those matters which, once learned, enable the student to learn all the other matters, whether trivial or complex, that cannot properly be the subjects of elementary and secondary schooling. In other words, both logic and experience suggest that certain subjects have generative power and others do not have generative power. . . .

It has, up to our time, been the general experience of men that certain subjects and not others possess this generative power. Among these subjects are those that deal with language, whether or not one's own; forms, figures and numbers; the laws of nature; the past; and the shape and behavior of our common home, the earth. Apparently these master or generative subjects endow one with the ability to learn the minor or self-terminating subjects. They also endow one, of course, with the ability to learn the higher, more complex developments of the master subjects themselves.

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John Dewey 1859	Since growth is the characteristic of life, education is all one with growing; it has no end be-

TABLE 5 Continued

Scholars and Date of Birth	Statement of Aims
	yond itself. The criterion of the value of education is the extent in which it creates a desire for continued growth and supplies means for making the desire effective in fact.
Alfred North Whitehead 1861	What we should aim at producing is men who possess both culture and expert knowledge in some special direction. Their expert knowledge will give them the ground to start from, and their culture will lead as deep as philosophy and as high as art. ^a
James B. Conant 1893	. . . we wish to insure a vigorous development of this society in accordance with our traditional goals; in the second place, we desire that as many of our citizens as possible may lead fruitful and satisfying lives; thirdly, we realize that in order to prosper as a highly industrialized nation we must find and educate all varieties of talent and guide that talent into the proper channels of employment. ^b
Robert M. Hutchins 1899	What belongs in education is what helps the student to learn to think for himself, to form an independent judgment, and to take his part as a responsible citizen. . . . If the object of the educational system is to help young people learn to think for themselves, it should help them to think about the most important subjects, and these are discussed in the greatest works of the greatest writers of the past and present. ^c
Lawrence G. Derthick 1905	Character training and the development of other specialized talents are proper concerns of the schools, as well as intellectual development. ^d

^a Alfred North Whitehead, *The Aims of Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929), p. 13. Copyright 1929 by The Macmillan Company, copyright renewed 1957 by Evelyn Whitehead. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company.

^b James B. Conant, *Education in a Divided World* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1948), p. 69.

^c Robert Hutchins, *The Conflict in Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953), pp. 7-8.

^d National School Public Relations Association, *Education, U.S.A.* (February 25, 1960), p. 2.

SOURCE: Adapted from Merritt M. Thompson, *The History of Education* (New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1951), pp. 142-143.

The discovery of truth, individual fulfillment, service to church and state, attainment of morality are emphases that reoccur from age to age. The development of the complete man, who is in command of the full power that knowledge affords and who can function usefully and harmoniously in a social and moral environment, is a theme which to a remarkable extent is common to all.

Disagreement regarding the aims of education usually results from the emphasis placed on different specific objectives rather than from the general direction advocated. Although the aims of education are not universally applicable and perpetually enduring, the basic values to which civilized societies subscribe are sufficiently constant that scholars, from Socrates to Conant, have held similar ideas regarding the rightful purposes of education. When these views are applied to specific educational programs in given nations, they take their character as goals for schools from the emphasis placed upon one or both of the two primary benefactors from education—the individual and society.

Those who give greater attention to individual fulfillment, of which group in recent years Robert Maynard Hutchins has been a highly articulate spokesman,¹² hold that education has a universal mission to serve the individual. They insist that the form of society should not be taken into account when setting the aims for education since each person must be trained and motivated to search for absolute, rather than pragmatic, truths. It is only natural for advocates of this position to believe that the aims of education are best served by emphasis in school programs on the classical humanistic studies—theology, philosophy, history, and literature—that have served as storehouses for the revealed and discovered truths throughout the ages.

In contrast, people who emphasize largely the values to be derived from education to the society—or to a particular nation, as does Admiral Rickover¹³—support the position that inasmuch as education is the major instrument for guaranteeing the survival of governments its goals should give priority to the obligations of schools to the state rather than to the individual.

Logically extended, the Rickover point of view encourages the

¹² Robert Hutchins, *The Conflict in Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953).

¹³ H. G. Rickover, *Education and Freedom* (New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1959).

position that "what is good for the nation is good for the individual." Certain implications of this position were identified clearly by Mrs. Agnes E. Meyer when she said: "Instead of following Admiral Rickover's advice to imitate the authoritarian methods of Russia, we must develop an education and philosophy of education which will serve the purposes of a free society as effectively as Soviet education serves the purposes of despotism." The purposes of a free society would not be served by national standards of achievement both for pupils and teachers. As former United States Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick has noted: ¹⁴ "We want differing standards which will challenge each pupil to work up to capacity."

Concern for national defense, success in the satellite competition, as well as the challenge to develop the new resources made possible by atomic fission, have caused many in the United States who share Admiral Rickover's point of view to call upon schools to do a better job of preparing individuals for service to society. This educational aim as it is being translated into school programs is promoting a greater emphasis upon intensive training in scientific fields, particularly for gifted students.

The reconciliation of these two emphases in education in the United States, individual fulfillment and service to state, is a persistent source of controversy. Yet the urgency of maintaining a proper and healthy balance between the two aims is such that former president of Harvard University James Bryant Conant has given this task first claim to his time and attention at the very peak of his intellectual leadership. His position that universality and quality can be attained, both in one reasonably large comprehensive high school, without sacrificing goals important to either the individual or to the nation, places him—in terms of educational theory—squarely between the two extreme proposals for educational aims supported by Hutchins on the one hand and Rickover on the other. Apparently Mrs. Meyer and former Commissioner Derthick share Dr. Conant's position.

¹⁴ Quoted in National School Public Relations Association, *Education, U.S.A.* (February 25, 1960), p. 2.

Emphases in Educational Aims

In spite of the current as well as long-standing controversy over whether education should give priority to individual fulfillment or to service to the society, and whether these two goals can and must be achieved in a democratic nation in which individual freedom and happiness are the ends of the state, a number of common elements have prevailed in the developing emphases in educational aims over the past century. Examples of specific goals for education, at different times, are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6

EXAMPLES OF EMPHASES IN EDUCATIONAL AIMS AT DIFFERENT TIMES

Herbert Spencer (1860)	Cardinal Principles (1918)	Educational Policies Commission (1938)
1. Health	1. Health	1. Self-realization
2. Vocation	2. Fundamental processes	2. Human relationship
3. Parenthood	3. Worthy home membership	3. Economic efficiency
4. Leisure	4. Vocation	4. Civic responsibility
5. Citizenship	5. Citizenship	
	6. Worthy use of leisure time	
	7. Ethical character	
White House Conference (1955)	White House Conference Ralph W. Tyler (1960)	
1. Fundamental skills	1. Individual self-realization	
2. Civic responsibility	2. Citizenship	
3. Human relationships	3. Social mobility	
4. Effective work habits	4. Preparation for world of work	
5. Social competency	5. Comprehension of experiences, services, and goods which can contribute to health and satisfactions	
6. Ethical character		
7. Aesthetic appreciation		
8. Health		
9. Wise use of leisure time		

For a hundred years, at least, schools have been expected to provide instruction that would contribute to such objectives as health, vocational efficiency, parenthood, citizenship, and leisure.

Mastery of the skills of learning, traditionally referred to as the three R's, is, of course, assumed in all these proposals. This emphasis is mentioned specifically in the 1955 White House Conference Aims because at that time criticism was common that the schools were failing to stress this objective sufficiently.

Although these statements of emphases in educational aims show remarkable agreement, their application in given school situations often provokes sharp controversy. Since World War II, for example, emphasis in school programs on preparation for family membership, civic responsibility, social competency, human relationships, use of leisure time, and vocational efficiency—all endorsed by the White House Conference—have been the object of attacks by critics of education such as Bestor, Lynd and Thompson.¹⁵ Agreement on specific emphases in educational aims is more difficult to achieve than endorsement of the general goals for schools. Even when common acceptance would seem to be assured by a proposal such as that of the White House Conference, dissenters are free in the United States to protest the decision and to appeal to people both in local communities and throughout the nation to ignore the covenant.

EDUCATIONAL AIMS OF LOCAL SCHOOLS

Further insight into the similarities and differences in emphasis of educational aims may be achieved by studying some actual statements of aims of a few selected school systems. Compare the statements below with those of the Educational Policies Commission and the White House Conference. How are they all alike? How do they differ? Keep in mind that the statements are real ones from real school systems.

The first statements listed reflect the educational philosophy of the public elementary schools of Evanston, Illinois.¹⁶

1. We believe that our schools are designed by the State of Illinois and our local citizens for the sole purpose of educating the boys and

¹⁵ Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., "Anti-Intellectualism in the Schools," *New Republic* (January 19, 1953); Albert Lynd, *Quackery in the Public Schools* (Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1953); Dorothy Thompson, "Why and What Should Johnny Read," *Ladies' Home Journal*, Vol. 73 (October, 1956).

¹⁶ Statement furnished by Dr. O. M. Chute, Superintendent of Schools, Evanston, Illinois, District number 65. The statement was developed by the professional staff.

girls of Evanston enrolled in our schools.

Members of the Board of Education, the entire professional staff, and custodians are pledged to that end. Each member of this team working together with his colleagues for the good of children, placing service above self, contributes to the enrichment of the lives of the young citizens entrusted to our care.

2. We believe that the education of children includes their intellectual, physical, emotional, and social growth.

We teach facts in school, but that is not enough. We are interested in a child's attitude toward these facts. For example, information about the United States in a child's mind must be reinforced with pride in the accomplishments of the past and a determination to contribute his share in building for the future of our country.

3. We believe that we should guide each child to think and make judgments based on experience and all known facts.

The very life of a democracy depends upon informed and intelligent citizens.

4. We believe that an effective educational program will recognize and provide for individual differences among children.

Our schools have a wide variety of programs for children with physical and mental differences. In many areas differences in native abilities are welcomed, and those abilities are encouraged to develop and flower.

5. We believe that an effective citizen in a democracy must acquire basic skills and knowledge.

Here, again, such skills and knowledge should not be an end in themselves, but should be taught to help boys and girls to become better adjusted individuals and to become better members of families and communities.

6. We believe that the home is the most important basic social group, and we welcome the co-operation of parents so as to help each child achieve his best at each stage of development.

The family group is the most important educational influence in the lives of children. Our schools are anxious to co-operate with parents in programs designed to broaden and deepen the influence of the home.

7. We believe that in a highly organized society social agencies outside the home and school are essential.

We want our children, within the level of their understanding, to know something about the social agencies in the community, and to participate in worthwhile civic programs for the improvement of Evanston.

8. We believe that we must dedicate a part of our time each day and each year to a careful evaluation of our work.

Even as we study the past and present, all of us need to remember that the best in any field of endeavor is not yet achieved and that each individual has a greater contribution to make to his fellows than he has made. We must not justify mediocrity because it is the fashion, but change our procedures as experience and wisdom teach.

9. We believe that in our educational program we are dealing with matters of the mind and of the spirit and that we are building an appreciation of spiritual values into the lives of our pupils.

Democracy is basically a religious idea about the unique dignity and worth of each individual. If we remember and teach the spiritual nature of this great ideal and do not tend to think of democracy only in terms of physical power and possessions, we can build strength in our young people that no alien philosophy can overcome.

The next statement contains the educational aims of the public schools of Racine, Wisconsin.¹⁷

School curriculums are built upon the over-all purposes of education as stated and accepted by the citizens of a community. Racine's aims for public education have been repeatedly stated as follows:

To develop the intellectual processes, including the ability to read, spell, write, and speak; ability to use and understand arithmetic and mathematics; and ability to judge, compare, and evaluate ideas of other men as well as to think creatively.

To provide pupils with skills and knowledges needed in a vocational field so that all may earn a living and serve God and society as competent and morally responsible individuals.

To develop self-knowledge, including a knowledge of men and their affairs in this interdependent world, a knowledge of the physical worlds and the universe in which we live, and a knowledge of the pupils' own physical and mental possibilities and limitations.

These examples of aims for individual school systems illustrate the commitments for schools that have been agreed upon by citizens and teachers in given communities. They serve as guides to teachers and help parents to understand what their schools are trying to accomplish.

¹⁷ Statement furnished by John Prasch, Superintendent of Schools, Racine, Wisconsin.

THE TEACHER AND THE AIMS OF EDUCATION

Aims of education serve as directional signs for the teacher. They indicate the expectations that people hold for schools and provide criteria by which the work of the teacher and of the school may be evaluated.

Quality in teaching as well as in the entire educational program depends, first of all, on a clear-cut understanding of goals to be achieved. Unless the teacher knows the aims of education generally, the emphases that are assigned to various specific objectives, and the educational commitments of the community served by the school, instruction is likely to be confused, off-target, inefficient, and possibly conflicting.

Students and parents need to know the purposes to which the study of various subject fields in the curriculum contribute. Without such understandings a sufficient degree of motivation for learning cannot be achieved. In addition, the achievement of excellence in teaching requires that careful and continuing attention be given to appraising educational achievement in terms of the aims which schools and their programs are expected to serve. The good teacher is the one who helps students achieve, with maximum efficiency and permanence of learning, the goals assigned to education.

SUMMARY

The question "What should be the aims of education?" has challenged scholars throughout the ages. Philosophers, statesmen, educators, as well as citizens generally—individually and in groups—have sought to achieve common agreements on educational objectives. Their efforts have been complicated by the relationship between education and the values people hold about life and learning. Because values determine educational goals, and inasmuch as they differ, the aims of education in a free society must necessarily be a compromise.

The needs of society and of individuals constitute the two major sources of the goals of education. The type of nation served by the school determines whether education will be provided for all or only for the intellectually elite and whether emphasis will be

given to preparation for citizenship in a democracy or for life in an authoritarian form of government.

In the United States priority is given to individual freedom. As one would expect, this basic belief is reflected in the goals of education. All facets of living and learning—emotional, physical, social, spiritual, as well as intellectual—are emphasized in objectives for American schools. Yet, because the individual can achieve the maximum development which makes possible freedom and personal happiness only in a free society, education must pursue goals that will guarantee the continued existence of democracy as a national way of life.

A number of generally recognized agreements about the aims of education have been established. One of the most recent was developed by the White House Conference on elementary and secondary education in 1955. In addition, individuals from Socrates to Conant have advanced their personal proposals for educational goals. Striking similarities are found in all these general statements; yet when they are applied in particular communities, at given times, controversy often develops over the specific emphases that are given to various purposes served by schools. Conflict, particularly in a democratic nation, often stems from the degree of concern for the individual as contrasted to the degree of concern for society. Maintaining a proper and healthy balance between these two recipients of the benefits of education is a continuing task.

In addition to national agreements relative to the aims of education, individual communities maintain statements of goals for their schools. Teachers must develop a thorough understanding of both generally recognized objectives for schools and those endorsed in their own communities in order to make their work effective and efficient.

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ORGANIZATION AND
CONTROL OF SCHOOLS

The United States Constitution makes no provision for the control of education; consequently, under the Tenth Amendment, this authority legally is vested in state governments. In practice, the tradition of local autonomy, fostered by political, economic, as well as geographical factors that shaped the development of early schools, has received legal sanction from constitutional and legislative provisions which delegate control of schools to local school districts. To a remarkable extent, therefore, each community or school district, with only minimum restrictions or prescriptions from the state, is free to develop and maintain the kind of educational program it prefers. As Benjamin C. Willis, one of America's leading educators, said recently: ¹ "There is no American school system, but there are schools for American children. Each is different as it seeks to build a program of education which is unique and adaptable to the talents and ambitions of every child."

Evidence that the people take their mandate for local control of schools seriously is available, for example, in the heated controversies that frequently develop over the election of school board members, the changing of tax rates, the approving of bond issues as well as the more informal expressions of public sentiment toward such matters as quality of instruction, curricular emphases, and educational objectives. The potency of control is attested by the protests of those who seek to influence quickly, in any direction, the program of education in a state, region, or nation. It was frustration with local control, for example, that caused Admiral H. G. Rickover, in his concern for improving quality and changing school emphases, to propose that 37,000 local school boards in the United States should be replaced by a national governmental

¹ Quoted by Archibald B. Shaw, "Close-ups," *Overview* (February, 1960), p. 28.

body with authority to specify school curriculums and standards.² A similar concern has prompted a group of professional educators to propose that a national curriculum be established as a guide for local schools.³ All who seek to bring about sweeping changes in education soon become aware of the force and power of local control—either to improve education or maintain the *status quo* of schools.

In spite of the degree of local control that prevails, the state government legally is responsible for the public schools. It can determine the conditions under which schools will be maintained, prescribe courses as well as standards, and supply financial support. In addition to the state controls, the federal government finds ways to influence aspects of educational programs which are judged to be in the national interest. Federal support for programs in the area of agricultural and vocational education is perhaps the best example of national participation in education at the state and local levels. More recent evidence of the manner in which federal legislation can affect schools is the National Defense Education Act of 1958 which provided support for programs of science, mathematics, certain foreign languages as well as guidance services, and television teaching. The United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare also gives advisory leadership to programs of education at both state and local levels.

ORGANIZATION AND CONTROL OF SCHOOLS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Variations in patterns of legal organization range from highly centralized control at the state level in the new states of Alaska and Hawaii to a middle practice of rather positive state control in some Southern states, to the other extreme of practically no centralized control in certain states in New England and the Midwest. Nevertheless, despite differences in the degree of authority at state and local levels, it is common practice for local control to be vested in an administrative type of unit called a school district. Some states also maintain intermediate units, often synonymous

² H. G. Rickover, "The Truth Shall Make You Free," a speech delivered at the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn (Mimeographed and distributed, April 19, 1958), p. 7.

³ Paul R. Hanna, "Design for a National Curriculum," *The Nation's Schools*, (September, 1958), pp. 43-45.

with the political county units, to function as a co-ordinating body between local districts and the state board or department of education.

The Intermediate District

The intermediate district typically includes a number of local school districts representing either towns, cities, or rural areas. It may, depending upon the population to be served, represent only a portion of the political county unit; or if the population is sparse, it may include more than one county. Its function is to keep official records on school populations, distribute state funds, and generally to supervise the operation of schools under its jurisdiction. Often, larger local school districts which represent sizeable towns or cities are excluded by law from the jurisdiction of the intermediate, or county, unit. In such instances, the excluded local school district serves as its own intermediate district in relationships with the state. When large school districts are not under the jurisdiction of the intermediate unit, as is the case in most states, the county system of schools gives leadership to and exercises legal control over the smaller districts, most of which exist in rural areas.

The intermediate unit should not be confused with the county school units which function as local school districts. Some states have established the county as an inclusive local school district, similar in function and authority to large city school districts which operate directly under state jurisdiction. The three basic patterns of legal relationships between the local school district, intermediate districts, and the state are shown in Figure 11.

The intermediate, or county, district has not been a strong unit in the state system of education. The county superintendent of schools typically has been a political officer, elected by popular vote every two or four years, and frequently poorly qualified for the post. Authority and responsibility assigned to the intermediate unit have been minimal. Yet this organizational agency has been the only source of control and assistance for the schools of the thinly populated rural areas of the nation.

As the character of life in the United States has changed from rural to urban, with the consequent reduction in number of local school districts, the intermediate unit has become a source of con-

trovery in a number of states. The opposing positions regarding its future usefulness in the structure of the state school system are:

- (1) The intermediate unit should be defined and established, with relatively uniform size in terms of the pupil population served, with authority and state support to provide vital school services.
- (2) Economies can be achieved by organizing schools on the county unit system. The intermediate unit has served its usefulness and should be discontinued, thus permitting every local district to relate itself directly with the central state structure.
- (3) The dual or combined plans are still essential to the nature of

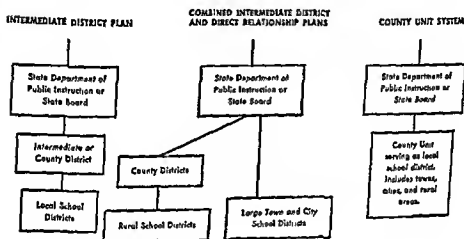


FIGURE 11.

BASIC PATTERNS OF LEGAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOCAL, INTERMEDIATE, AND STATE EDUCATIONAL UNITS

urban and rural life in many states; consequently, they should be maintained to assure that rural areas are not neglected educationally. Proponents of this position often differ regarding the amount of authority and control that should be vested in the intermediate unit.

Local School Districts

Local school districts are the major agencies for the control and operation of schools. They are official governmental units which have been established as legal, corporate entities of the state, similar to municipalities, by action of the state legislature. The state

has the authority to establish local districts, to reorganize them, and to abolish them individually or on a state-wide basis.

Substantial diversity in type, size, and name of local school districts prevails from state to state. Two common bases are employed for determining the nature and designation of a district.

Area included. The standard way of designating a school district is by the area included within its boundaries. The district may incorporate all the territory and the people residing thereon within a town or township, a city, or a county. Not always are school district lines coterminous with political subdivisions. The title "community district" may indicate that two or more towns, or a town and adjoining village and perhaps rural areas, have been organized into a single local school district.

In districts that are defined by the area included, the school board has responsibility for providing a total educational program from either kindergarten or first grade through high school—and in a few states through the junior college—for all children and youth of school age residing within the district. In accordance with legal statutes to provide funds for the support of schools and the construction of school buildings, the school board may levy taxes or may recommend the levying of taxes and sell school bonds.

School services provided. Another way to designate school districts is by the types of services provided to particular segments of the population of an area. For example, a district that operates only an elementary school is called an elementary school district. Similarly, those which are restricted to operating secondary schools are called high school districts. Both may overlap each other in terms of the area included. Other types of districts of this kind are: the junior college district which may serve a number of local school districts co-operating to provide the junior college services; the unified school district which typically designates some form of co-operation or consolidation between other types of districts or may only indicate that for certain services unification has been achieved; and the contracting district which does not itself maintain schools but instead contracts with other districts for the education of its school-age population.

Districts designated by the services provided also have geographical boundary lines which define their taxable property and

the population to be served. They concentrate, however, on the school programs within their legal responsibilities, while maintaining usually only informal co-operative relationships with other districts serving the same area. Citizens served by two or more of such school districts vote separately for school board members for each and are assessed separate tax rates for each district.

Size of Local School Districts

Local school districts range in size from those which maintain only one rural school, of which there are several thousand still in existence, to the other extreme, New York City School District, which serves over a million pupils. In geographical size, districts range from 2 or 3 to 17,127 square miles.

Over the years, there has been a steady trend toward eliminating, through consolidation and reorganization, of the small school districts which are expensive to operate and whose educational services are not usually up to standard. Since 1948, for example, the total number of school districts in the United States has been reduced from almost 100,000 to 37,153 in 1961. Despite this remarkable progress, the status of local school districts as administrative units for educational programs still reflects the following characteristics which are generally recognized as deficiencies.⁴

1. Only about one district out of every eight is large enough to employ as many as 40 teachers.

2. More than three out of every four districts employ 10 teachers or less.

3. There are a few districts (contract districts) that operate no schools at all.

Another type of problem has received a great deal of attention within the past few years. Some districts are too large. Local autonomy is as seriously impaired in cities such as New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, and many others as it is in the most impoverished district with 50 pupils.⁵ Bigness brings complexities and difficulties in administering the schools that all but preclude active

⁴ Commission on School District Reorganization, *The Point of Beginning: The Local School District* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1958), pp. 4-5.

⁵ It is generally agreed that a school district should be large enough to employ a minimum of 40 teachers and enroll at least 1,200 pupils in grades 1-12. No upper limit has been specified by experts. This problem is still awaiting their attention, with a few notable exceptions.

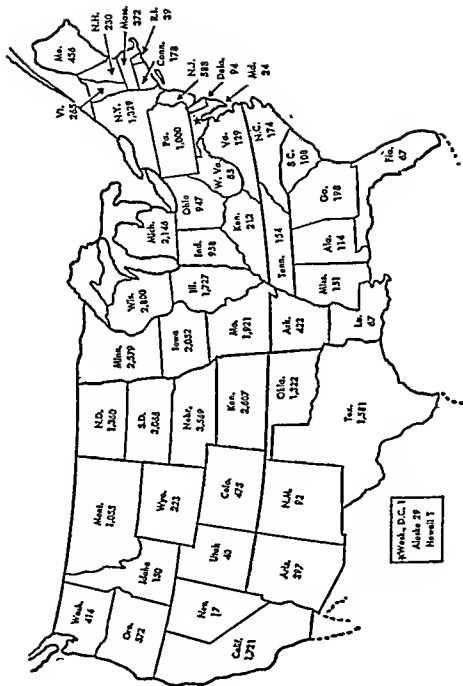


FIGURE 12.

NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN EACH STATE IN 1961

Figures from National Education Association, Research Division, "Estimates of School Statistics, 1960-61," Research Report 1060-115 (Washington, D.C.: The Association, December, 1966), p. 10.

citizen interest and participation in development of educational policies.

The number of school districts and the population of a state are not necessarily correlated. This fact is indicated by the data presented in Figure 12.

In 1961 the number of school districts ranged from a low of 1 in Hawaii to a high of 3,569 in Nebraska. Each of these districts in the various states has a local school board.

Local School Boards

The local district, no matter how large or how small, is governed by a school board or board of education. Such boards represent the local people, but they also represent the state legislature that created them and delegated to them certain authority. Of course, many powers are reasonably implied from specifically delegated authority, and consequently boards of education are more powerful than a literal interpretation of state statutes would indicate. In general, states have been quite generous in conveying powers to the local boards.

About 95 per cent of the board members in the United States are elected by popular vote, usually on a nonpartisan ballot.⁶ The other 5 per cent are appointed, usually by the mayor, city council, or county board of supervisors. In only one state, Virginia, are all school board members appointed. Most school boards in the United States have five or seven members.

A good summary of important facts about boards of education was provided recently by the United States Office of Education and is as follows:⁷

A local board of education is an agency of the state and is at the same time the instrument through which local control is maintained.

Exclusive of small districts, school boards usually consist of five or seven members.

Three- to six-year terms of office are most common for school board members.

There are practically no legal limitations on the number of terms a board member may serve.

Any qualified voter is eligible for board membership in most school districts.

⁶ Data obtained from W. A. Shannon of the National School Boards Association, 1961.

⁷ U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, No. 13 (1957).

Candidates for boards of education are most commonly nominated by petition of the qualified voters.

A majority of board members are chosen on a nonpartisan basis at separate elections.

Most board members are chosen from the school district at large.

Vacancies are likely to be filled by remaining members on elected boards and by the appointing agency on appointed boards.

Compensation for school board members is the exception rather than the rule.

It is generally agreed by authorities in the field of education that the board of education is one of the finest examples of American democracy at work. Members are typically outstanding citizens. They generally render a superior, unselfish public service. Many of them spend long hours in the performance of their duties usually without pay. An example of the desire of school board members to do a good job can be seen in the time and effort they devote to their voluntary association, their own state school boards association, and the National School Boards Association.

The Professional Staff in Local Schools

The relationships, duties, and responsibilities of the local school system's professional staff are usually described in state statutes, regulations of the state board of education, and/or policies and regulations of the local school board. The local school board contracts for the services of the professional staff. The superintendent of schools is selected and employed by the board of education, and he is the executive officer of the board and the leader of the staff. All other staff members—teachers, principals, supervisors, special teachers and non-certified personnel—are employed by the board upon the recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Of course, in many schools, staff members share in the selection of new personnel. Their recommendations, however, must gain the endorsement of the superintendent of schools who makes nominations to the board of education for approval.

The relationships between the citizens of a school district, the school board, and professional staff are depicted in Figure 13.

The organizational pattern presented here is known as the line and staff plan, one which has long been employed in the structure of military organizations. Staff officers, shown on the right, are

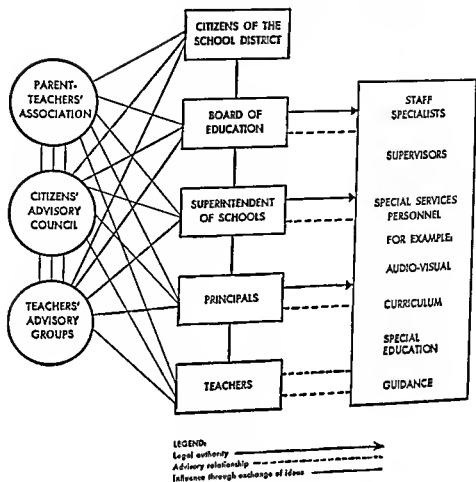


FIGURE 13.

FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL CHART FOR A LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEM,
INCLUDING COMMUNITY GROUPS OF INFLUENCE

subject to line authority of the board of education and the superintendent of schools; yet they contribute to the educational program through advisory rather than direct control procedures. Citizen and teacher groups have no legal or official advisory authority, but they make possible a flow of organized ideas that are valuable guides to those responsible for administration of schools.

STATE ORGANIZATION AND CONTROL OF SCHOOLS

Education is a self-imposed responsibility of the people in the various states. Most of their constitutions include clauses for the es-

tablishment and maintenance of a system of free public schools. State responsibility for public education has been further established by court decisions of which a case in the State of Kentucky is typical. The court ruled: ⁸ "Under our system, every common school in the state, whether located in a city or in the country, is a state institution, protected, controlled, and regulated by the state." The establishment of local school districts represents the state's way of providing for the administration of its system of free public schools. Regardless of the degree of local autonomy provided, or permitted, the state is the agency responsible for the maintenance of public education, subject, of course, to the will of the people as expressed through representative government.

Control of Schools by Legislative Enactments

Action by state legislative bodies determines the extent to which authority for the operation of schools will be delegated to local school districts or retained for state control. Although centralized state power over the operation of educational programs varies considerably from state to state, similarities do exist.

1. All school laws are enacted by the state legislature in the same way that other laws are passed and put into effect.

2. The state, in all cases, accepts some degree of responsibility for financial support of public schools.

3. The state establishes standards for certification of teachers and other educational personnel and awards certificates, thus controlling admission to the practice of teaching.

4. Compulsory school attendance laws which specify the ages during which children must be in school are maintained by the state.

5. Certain content in the school curriculum is made mandatory by legislative enactments—for example, state and American history, health and physical education, alcohol and narcotics information, and in some cases the minimum general requirements in elementary and secondary schools.

6. The state sets standards of state financial aid to local school districts and determines by budgetary appropriations the amount of support available each year.

⁸ *Board of Education of Jefferson County v. Board of Education of Louisville*, 208 S.W., 669 (Ky. 1918).

7. Most states have established minimum salaries for teachers depending upon amount of training.

8. Certain school services, such as provision of free textbooks, transportation, supervision, are authorized by state law.

9. Some states provide for the approval of textbooks to be used in schools by establishing "adopted lists" from which books may be selected.

In addition to specific legislation, the state legislature may enact supplementary regulations to the provisions of the state constitution relative to the responsibilities of the state board of education. Forty-eight states maintain such a board; the others delegate administrative powers to the state superintendent of instruction.

State Board and Department of Education

The states which maintain a state board of education select its membership in a variety of ways. Thirty states provide for board members to be appointed by the governor. New York has the state legislature elect members of its state board which is called the Board of Regents. In the remaining 17 states which maintain state boards of education, members are elected, either in general elections or through school board conventions.

The function of the state board of education typically is that of policy approval and the general administration of state education laws. The power of state boards varies from state to state. In some, the board is little more than a figurehead body whose authority is restricted to advising the state superintendent of public instruction. In most cases, however, the state board is delegated substantial control of the state's system of education. Such authority is commonly discharged through administrative officials who usually are appointed by the board. In a few states, the chief state school officer, the superintendent of schools, is an elected official who works with an appointed state board. In others, the elected state board appoints the state superintendent. The governor actually appoints the state board and the superintendent also in at least one state, Virginia. In states which do not maintain a state board, the superintendent of public instruction is responsible both to the people, who elect him, and to the legislature which approves the budget for the state department of education and authorizes specific administrative procedures in the educa-

establishment and maintenance of a system of free public schools. State responsibility for public education has been further established by court decisions of which a case in the State of Kentucky is typical. The court ruled:⁸ "Under our system, every common school in the state, whether located in a city or in the country, is a state institution, protected, controlled, and regulated by the state." The establishment of local school districts represents the state's way of providing for the administration of its system of free public schools. Regardless of the degree of local autonomy provided, or permitted, the state is the agency responsible for the maintenance of public education, subject, of course, to the will of the people as expressed through representative government.

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tional program.

All states, whether or not they maintain state boards of education, provide for departments of public instruction to administer the state system of public schools. The state department is typically headed by a state superintendent of public instruction or a state commissioner of education. This office is filled by (1) popular election, (2) appointment by the state board, or (3) appointment by the governor. Appointment by the board is considered the most desirable means of selecting the state superintendent.

The state department of education is staffed with specialists in various phases of education. Typically, the state department of education renders four major types of service:

1. Leadership and advisory services—for example, state department personnel encourage school improvement by preparing publications, sponsoring educational conferences and workshops, and through consultation with local school people.

2. Supervisory and regulatory service—for example, state department personnel make certain that state laws and state board regulations are observed, accredit secondary schools, and issue teaching or administrative certificates to qualified applicants.

3. Fact gathering and research service—for example, state department personnel compile fiscal data, keep official school records, and issue reports on educational matters.

4. Public relations service—for example, state department personnel are usually consulted by the legislature when it comes time to appropriate state tax funds to the schools.

FEDERAL INTEREST IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

Two key points about control of schools have been made in the discussion thus far: (1) under the Tenth Amendment to the United States Constitution, education is left to the states and/or the people, (2) the people in assuming responsibility for schools have divided the legal control between state and local school districts. What, then, can be the responsibility of the federal government for education? Or, how may the people use the resources of their national government to help solve school problems?

Two major channels have been used by the federal government to share in the financing and control of education. First, Congress appropriates certain funds and makes legal specifications regard-

ing their expenditure in the educational field. Second, the federal government has created and maintains a United States Office of Education as a subdivision of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Federal Support of Schools

The federal government participates in the financial support of schools through three major avenues. First, grants of federal land made many years ago to most of the states produce income. Second, Congress appropriates funds for the support of distributive and vocational education and more recently education in certain fields judged basic to national defense; it also assists school districts that have incurred unusual problems as a result of federal activities in the particular area. Third, various governmental agencies expend funds directly for educational activities.

The states own a total of 40,000,000 acres of school land with an estimated value of about \$200,000,000. Income of approximately \$50,000,000 is received each year from school lands and is used to support public education. In addition to the income from school land, various states benefit from accumulated capital of approximately \$1,000,000,000 from the sale of lands allocated to them by the federal government. The capital from the sale of land may not be used, only the interest.

Congress appropriates substantial amounts annually for the support of various vocational and distributive educational programs and for other types of educational services. The teaching of agriculture, home economics, industrial education, and distributive education is subsidized by the federal government. Authority for such appropriations is derived from the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, the George-Deen Act of 1936, the George-Barden Act of 1946, and other statutes. Schools that are located in "Federally impacted areas"—that is, in areas where a large defense plant, air base, or similar installation causes unusual financial problems—are eligible for federal funds to support educational programs.

A number of federal agencies spend funds directly for specialized educational purposes. The Department of Agriculture, for example, maintains agricultural experiment stations and extension programs. The Bureau of Internal Revenue and the Bureau of Standards operate elaborate training divisions. The Department of

the Interior provides schools for Indians. Service schools, West Point, Annapolis, and the Air Force Academy, are operated by the federal government. The United States Office of Education administers grants for research, scholarships, and Defense Act programs directly and also assigns funds to the National Science Foundation for administration.

These are but a few examples of the involvement of federal agencies in the field of education. The examples point up the fact that the federal government does participate in the financing of public education in various ways.

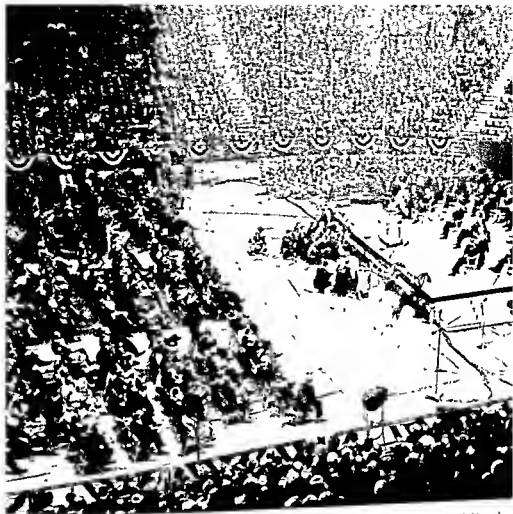
United States Office of Education

The forerunner of the present Office of Education, known as the Department of Education, was created in 1867. This agency, although called a department, actually had no representative in the President's Cabinet. It became the United States Bureau of Education in 1870 and was located in the Department of Interior. In 1929 the Bureau became the United States Office of Education. In 1939 it was transferred to the Federal Security Agency. In 1953 it was incorporated as one of the three major divisions of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, whose Secretary is a member of the Cabinet. A Commissioner of Education heads the Office of Education. He, like the Secretary, is a political appointee.

For many years the Office of Education has rendered a valuable service to education. Office of Education personnel collect and publish statistics on education; they provide national leadership in various areas of the field of education; and they engage in research. During the past few years the Office of Education has also sponsored research conducted by universities and state departments of education.

The Office of Education handles certain educational funds appropriated by Congress. Funds are typically allocated to states through the facilities of state departments of public instruction. About the only contact federal personnel have with local school officials is through their role of collecting and disseminating educational statistics.

For several years, some leading educators have advocated a national board of education. Those favoring this development



ABOVE: Opening session of the White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1960 (see page 120). More than 7,000 educators, social workers, civic leaders, and clergymen from the United States, its territories, and 54 foreign countries participated. The next such meeting will take place in 1970. (Photo, National Committee on Children and Youth.) BELOW: "Buzz groups" at a P.T.A. conference on legislation affecting schools and children (see page 305). (Photo, National Congress of Parents and Teachers.)



ABOVE: Headquarters of the National Education Association in Washington, D.C. Professional organizations, like the NEA, make constant and important contributions to education and the teaching profession (see pages 250-254). (Photo, Carl Purcell, NEA.)



Dr. William G. Carr (*left*), NEA Executive Secretary, and Dr. T. M. Stinnett (*right*), Executive Secretary, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the NEA. (Photo of Dr. Carr by Fabian Bachrach; Dr. Stinnett, courtesy NEA.)

Dr. Sterling M. McMurrin (*left*), U.S. Commissioner of Education, and Abraham Ribicoff (*right*), Secretary of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (Photos, courtesy U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.)



envisage that a national board would function much as state boards do. It would develop educational policy on the national level, work with Congress, and select the Commissioner of Education. Little progress toward this objective has been realized.

The organization of American education in accordance with legalistic concepts is recapitulated in Figure 14. Local, state, and federal relationships are indicated.

The source of authority of various agencies at different governmental levels is indicated in the key. While an understanding of the legalistic structure and control of American public education is essential, one should keep in mind that actual practice does not always adhere to technical or legal definitions. For example, a local school board may default in its policy-making responsibility, and the vacuum may then be filled by the superintendent of schools. Or a state board of education may not fulfill its leadership responsibilities. Generally, however, organization and control of public schools in the United States operate as depicted.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS

"Organization of schools" usually refers to the local, state, and national structure for education. Some educational authorities, however, use this phrase to describe administrative units in local schools. When they do, they actually refer to the internal organization of schools. This subject is of particular importance to the teacher inasmuch as it may influence directly the manner in which professional duties may be performed.

Internal organization pertains both to the manner in which elementary and secondary schools are organized in a given local district and to the type of organization prevailing for the organization of instruction in grades and subjects.

Organizational Plans

If a school district includes only an elementary school, or a high school, its organizational plan is determined by the local district structure. On the other hand, a district which includes both elementary and secondary schools, and perhaps a junior college, must determine a pattern of general organization suitable to its objectives and compatible with its building facilities. Inasmuch as the

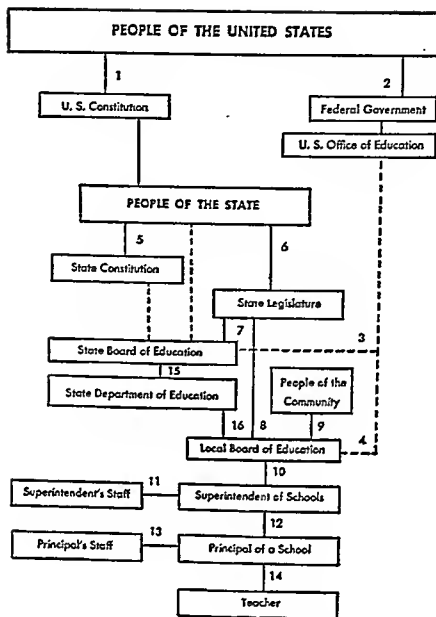


FIGURE 14.

LEGAL AND ADVISORY GOVERNMENTAL RELATIONSHIPS TO SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN THE UNITED STATES

Legal control is indicated by solid lines, advisory power by broken lines.

KEY:

1. The people frame and revise.
2. The people elect their representatives.
3. U.S. Office of Education personnel act in advisory role.
4. U.S. Office of Education personnel act in leadership and advisory role.
5. People frame and revise.
6. People elect.
7. Legislature creates.
8. Legislature creates.
9. In most districts, people elect.
10. Board selects as executive officer.
- 11-14. Superintendent recommends; board appoints.
15. State Board employs.
16. State Department carries out state laws and state board policies.

majority of schools in the United States are of this type, offering work from kindergarten, or grade 1, through grade 12, it is to be expected that a variety of organizational plans would have been tried out.

The division of elementary grades as apart from the high school, or the additional subdifferentiation of the secondary school into a junior and senior high school, forms the basis for designating types of organizational plans for the schools of a district. In early New England schools, for example, it was common for the elementary school to include nine grades and the high school three; this type of organization is called the 9-3 plan. The predominate plan nationally, in terms of numbers of local districts following it at least, has been eight years of elementary school work followed by a four-year high school program, or the 8-4 plan. The development of the junior high school which incorporated the last two years of the elementary school with the first year of high school into a separate unit produced the 6-3-3 plan. Many small school districts accomplished the extension of secondary school work downward, an objective of the junior high school movement, by developing 6-6 organizational plans. Various other types have been popular in sections of the country: the 7-5 plan in the Southern states; the 6-4-4 and the 6-3-3-2 in California; the 6-2-4, 1-12 and K-12 and 7-2-3 in a scattering of school districts. Of course any combinations of grades and high school years may be preceded by a kindergarten unit or followed by a two-year junior or community college. The divisions between units of the school system are usually housed in separate buildings, each having its own administrative and faculty organization.

Although the availability of school buildings and economies in planning plant expansions—for example using the old high school building for the junior high school—have influenced organizational arrangements in local school districts, the most important factor has been the philosophy of education which holds different functions for pupil age levels. The elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school, are seen as contributing in unique and differentiated ways to the education of children and youth; consequently, it is assumed that the specific educational objectives of each can be better achieved in separate administrative organizations.

Organization for Instruction in Grades and Subjects

How instruction may be provided is determined, initially, at least, by the plan of organization for individual grade or class groups. This type of organization either permits teachers to work in the field, or fields, of their greatest strength or requires them to teach in a variety of skill or subject areas.

Departmentalization. Almost without exceptions, senior high schools are organized on a departmental basis. Teachers instruct in only one or two subject fields according to their college specialization. Most junior high schools are departmentalized, either in part or totally. Some follow organizational patterns which require students to be in "core" or general education groups, for example, in English and social studies for a portion of the day, from one-fourth to one-half, and in departmentalized courses the remainder of the time. Typically the amount of departmentalization in the junior high school increases in grades 8 and 9. Departmentalization in elementary schools, when it exists, is usually found in the grades 5 and 6, although music, art, and physical education are often taught by special teachers from grade 1 through grade 6.

The object of departmentalization is to provide teachers who are specialists in their teaching fields. It is believed that high-quality instruction and specialization by the instructor go hand in hand, particularly at the secondary school level.

Self-contained classroom. The self-contained classroom is a phrase used to describe a type of organization, usually found only in elementary schools, which assigns one teacher to spend the full school day with a grade group of children teaching all skills and subjects. Many schools which maintain a basic self-contained classroom organization actually make exceptions by providing special teachers in such fields as art, music, and physical education. In recent years, demands for increased emphasis on science and foreign language in the elementary school have caused additional exceptions to be favored in these fields. Furthermore, the appeals for high-quality and differentiated programs for intellectually superior students have further challenged the practicality of asking one teacher to be sufficiently competent in all fields to provide the total program of work for given grades.

Instructional teams. Recent efforts to organize grade and sub-

ject field instruction to provide for greater utilization of teacher competence—in order that students may have the advantage of expertness in all phases of their study—have prompted a number of extensive experiments with the use of instructional teams. This type of organization provides for a large group of children, perhaps as many as 150 to 200, in a given grade or subject area, or with similar academic abilities, to be assigned to an instructional team. The team may consist of specialists in various aspects of the work to be taught, individuals with different levels of professional maturity and sophistication ranging from lay readers, instructional aides and instructional secretaries as well as interns, to highly competent professional teachers. Depending upon the school system, the team may include, also, television teachers and their research and technical assistants who produce closed-circuit or telefilmed lessons to supplement the work of the on-the-spot classroom or instructional team members.*

The experimental successes of the instructional team are already sufficient to challenge the premise that the title "teacher" can be used to identify the variety of competencies and assignments involved in the instructional process. They give evidence, also, that better results can be obtained if the size of the learning group is adapted to the nature of the skills or material being taught. Large-group instruction under one member of the team makes possible highly individualized attention to other pupils. The possibilities presented by instructional teams permit the prospective teacher of today to look forward to professional opportunities for specialization and practice that in the past have not existed.

SUMMARY

Three different levels of government share in the control of education. Local autonomy, a practice indigenous to the United States, places basic control of the schools in the hands of citizens on the local level. Local control of schools takes place within the framework of state statutes and regulations. The federal government encourages education and provides various types of services to the schools.

* For review of developments in the teacher utilization field, see National Education Association, Research Division, *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 37, No. 3 (October, 1959).

Local school districts constitute the basic unit in the organizational pattern of schools. The state creates school districts as administrative units in order to preserve the practice of local autonomy. Consolidation to eliminate small school districts has proceeded at a rapid pace in recent years. About 42 thousand districts exist today as compared with about 100 thousand a decade ago. Educational authorities are in general agreement that in spite of the trend toward reducing the number of small school districts, too many still operate.

Local school districts are governed by a school board or board of education. About 95 per cent of the board members are elected directly by their fellow citizens, while the other 5 per cent are appointed. The school board makes the policies for the schools in accordance with state statutes and regulations. All school personnel are employed by the school board.

Education is legally a state function. This fact results not only from the Tenth Amendment to the federal Constitution but also from various court decisions. The state, through the legislature, enacts school laws and appropriates state funds to help support local schools. In 48 states, legislatures have created state boards of education.

The federal government has participated in the financing and control of public education throughout the history of the United States. Public schools have derived capital of approximately \$1,000,000,000 from sale of land allocated to them by the federal government for school purposes. Congress appropriates funds annually for the support of vocational and distributive education and for other purposes.

Another federal service is rendered through the United States Office of Education. Created in 1867 as the Department of Education, this agency is now a part of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Services include the collection and publication of statistics on education, national leadership in the field of education, and research studies which are conducted and reported by Office of Education personnel.

Internal organizational plans of schools vary almost as much as the types of districts in the United States. Common organizational patterns include 8-4, 6-3-3, 7-5, 6-6, 1-12, and K-12. The numbers refer to grade levels provided in one administrative unit.

In practically all high schools and in many junior highs departmentalization is a general practice. That is, pupils take different subjects with different teachers. Elementary schools generally have self-contained classrooms. All the subjects are taught by the same teacher. Recent experiments have tested the use of instructional teams to provide greater specialized competence in the instructional process.

The organization and control of schools in the United States differ from practice in all other major countries. Ours is a decentralized system. Control is kept close to the people. Those who have decided to become teachers or who are considering this profession should be duly appreciative of the unique American school system that aims to provide education for all while at the same time developing to a maximum the individual capacities of each.

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PART TWO

**CHOOSING THE TEACHING
PROFESSION AND
PREPARING FOR IT**

To thoughtful students the question has occurred, "Who should teach?" "The best should teach," according to Lindley J. Stiles of the University of Wisconsin. "Teaching beckons to those with the brightest minds, the finest personalities, and the soundest moral and spiritual commitments. It holds before them a life packed with excitement and satisfaction. It appeals to them to make the mature choice to put service to humanity above self."¹

Why is it imperative that only the best choose teaching? Dean Stiles helps to answer the question: "Teachers are the curators of all our yesterdays and the architects of our tomorrows. Always they accomplish their mission through the minds and talents of others. To do is noteworthy; but to be able to do and to devote one's knowledge and energies to helping others learn is man's noblest work."

Those who choose teaching as a career should be aware of the importance of their decision. Teaching is a complex and demanding profession. Certain qualities are essential for successful teaching. It is important that those who have chosen teaching or who are considering teaching as a career evaluate themselves carefully and candidly. Results of such a self-analysis should be validated through the use of objective aids and with the help of others.

IMPORTANCE OF CHOICE OF TEACHING

Persons who select the occupation that is right for them take a significant step toward a productive and happy life. Effective and happy teachers are prerequisite to continued advancement in all fields—social, economic, religious, and scientific. Society, then, is influenced greatly by those who choose to teach.

¹ Lindley J. Stiles, "The Best Should Teach," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, Vol. 90, No. 8 (March, 1953), p. 7.

To the Individual

Five days out of seven the typical individual works 8 out of every 24 hours. When a person looks forward to devoting one-third of his time during the workweek to a specific job in a particular field, he should make certain he has chosen the right vocation. In many instances, the profession or occupation selected is followed throughout a person's lifetime, and his work influences his family living, recreational activities, social relationships, and health. A few specific examples indicate why the selection of the right profession is of utmost importance.

Each person seeks self-realization. As has been said,² "All a man *can* be he *must* be if he is to be happy." Self-realization may be achieved in practically any type of occupation, provided it is right for the person concerned. The work itself and the material rewards it affords are not so important as the value system and perceptions an individual brings to the endeavor and the relationships it permits him to achieve with other people.

Satisfactory interpersonal relationships are essential to happiness and wholesome adjustment. Quality relationships, those that are mutually satisfying, are enhanced when a person feels that his job is right for him and that he is receiving approbation from his fellow workers. Teaching demands that teachers interact with many people—pupils, parents, other adults in the community, fellow teachers, and school administrators.

Self-respect and self-esteem are basic human necessities. A person should follow a profession or occupation in which he has the capacity to cope with the demands of the work. He needs to feel competent and worthy of self-respect. The alternative is a feeling of inferiority, frustration, and loss of self-respect. A degree of satisfaction should be the reward of any job.

Personal satisfaction derived from the performance itself correlates positively and significantly with job success. A circular reinforcement pattern prevails in a work situation. The relatively satisfied person is likely to behave in a mature and self-confident manner. Such behavior is an aid to success. On the other hand, the dissatisfied individual often develops a negative disposition and

² Anne Roe, *The Psychology of Occupations* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956), p. 23.

an antisocial type of behavior that make job success difficult.

Sound mental health is a universal requirement. Type of work significantly influences mental health of the individual. In turn, his general welfare—happiness, physical health, personal relationships and outlook—is strongly affected by his mental health. For the teacher, not only does his attitude toward his work determine his own mental health, it also bears heavily upon the clients, his pupils. Because, as it is often observed, individuals teach what they are as well as what they know, sound mental health is doubly important for those who choose to teach.

To Society

Society has a priority interest in those who teach children and youth. State governments, representing the people, attempt to safeguard the welfare of citizens by establishing minimum requirements for the practice of teaching through certification laws. Another exemplification of society's interest in those who teach is found in governmental provisions for the support of colleges and universities which prepare teachers.

Society is interested in those who teach because of the influence of education upon the culture. Scholars have made the point repeatedly that a society may stand or fall upon the type, amount, and quality of education provided. As Stiles has noted, "The world seldom notices who teachers are; but civilization depends on what they do."³ This thought is elaborated by the well-known philosopher Robert Ulich:⁴

While passing from one generation to another, civilization changes its character according to the spirit of those who transmit—for transmission of values is not just a process of "handing down," it is at the same time reinterpretation; it involves choice and selection; it is continual renaissance, or it is nothing but a show and burden. Thus the teacher, who is the transmitter, must also be the interpreter, the selective agent, the reviver and regenerator; otherwise he is not a blessing but a curse to the younger generation. . . . Let us never forget this when we speak of the role of the teacher in the culture of nations. Either he is one of its most active participants, or he is one of its destroyers.

³ Stiles, *op. cit.*, p. 7.

⁴ Robert Ulich, "On the Education of Teachers," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. XX (Spring, 1950), pp. 75-78.

Society has certain definite expectations of the school. Young people, at an impressionable age, are entrusted to adults in the personal and intimate process known as education. The extent to which young people are prepared for a productive and happy life in our democratic society is influenced significantly by teachers.

DEMANDS OF TEACHING

Teaching is a science and an art as well. The nature of the work of the teacher demands that he study human beings and understand the laws of human action. Knowledge of these two fields is obtained from various sciences. Biological sciences provide information about human growth and development. From psychology, principles of mental change and development are derived. The social sciences provide knowledge of man's institutions and his social behavior. The term *behavioral sciences* is used to designate the fields which provide the knowledge about human development and learning that is the basis for the professional practice of teaching.

The process of teaching, itself, involves providing or withholding stimuli with the objective of producing certain responses in the pupil. This procedure requires the teacher to apply scientific principles in dealing with both group and individual instruction. Teaching, therefore, is based upon scientific knowledge; yet the practical application of such knowledge in specific situations becomes largely an artistic process.

✓ Science provides knowledge; art provides the ability to apply it. A person may possess comprehensive knowledge of paints, their composition, use and effects; yet, he may not be an artist. He may not actually be able to paint. Similarly, a person may know his subject, understand appropriate behavioral sciences, and yet not be a teacher. The scientific foundations of education must be activated through the skill and insight of the artist-teacher. Thus, the demands of the work of the teacher are of both a scientific and an artistic nature.

QUALITIES ESSENTIAL FOR SUCCESSFUL TEACHING

What intellectual and scholastic abilities are required of teachers? What personal attributes are necessary? What interest patterns characterize good teachers?

Intellectual and Scholastic Qualities

The theme of this chapter—"only the best should teach"—defines generally the intellectual and scholastic abilities essential for successful teaching. Does this mean that teachers must be scholars? Yes, it does. The successful teacher knows his subject and possesses, as well, knowledge of appropriate content from the behavioral sciences. Assimilation of knowledge must be accompanied by its use. The teacher must translate what he knows into efficient personal and professional patterns of action that give proper guidance to the behavior and learning of students.

Successful teachers exhibit a high quality of scholarship. They possess competence characterized by:⁵

1. *Knowledge plus reflection* upon the meaning and implication of that knowledge.

2. *Recognition of the relation of particular knowledge to other fields*, and a usable acquaintance with sources of reliable information.

3. *Continued search for truth*, for greater understanding and insight into new relationships, using methods appropriate to the disciplines involved; and

4. *Courage* to defend one's considered and independent judgment when facts and changing conditions suggest new and different conclusions. . . .

The quality of scholarship required for successful teaching is most likely to be possessed by students who achieve above average success—grade point averages of B or higher—in all college work. In addition, a lively and insatiable curiosity is an important factor. Such individuals will typically possess a minimum intelligence quotient of 115–120. General level of intelligence is the one quality essential to successful teaching that programs of preparation cannot supply.

The relationship between intellectual superiority and high scholastic achievement and teaching success is not just a matter of opinion; substantial research evidence supports this conclusion. A. S. Barr summarized some 150 studies concerned with the characteristics and prerequisites of successful teaching. Of these, 61 dealt with the correlations between knowledges and generalized

⁵ Donald P. Cottrell, ed., *Teacher Education for a Free People* (Oneonta, N.Y.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1956), p. 57. (Association now located in Washington, D.C.)

skills and professional success. As shown in Table 7, the positive relationships outnumber negative and zero correlations.

TABLE 7

**SUMMARY OF STUDIES DEALING WITH RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN KNOWLEDGE AND GENERALIZED
SKILLS AND SUCCESSFUL TEACHING**

Aspect of Teachers Studied	Number of Studies *	Correlation with Successful Teaching ^b		
		P	N	O
A. <i>Knowledge</i>				
1. Knowledge of the subject-matter taught or activity directed	28	27	0	3
2. Knowledge of child behavior and development	2	4	0	0
3. Knowledge of professional practices and techniques	27	46	0	5
4. General cultural background	17	14	0	7
5. Scholarship, grade point average	27	55	1	3
B. <i>Generalized skills</i>				
1. Skill in problem solving	1	1	0	0
2. Work habits	1	7	0	1
3. Skill in the use of language				
a. Speech	14	27	0	0
b. Reading	8	7	0	3
c. English usage	2	8	0	1

* Studies will total more than 60 because more than one criterion of success was used in some studies.

^b Code: positive correlations—P; negative correlations—N; zero correlations—O

Source: Adapted from A. S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. XVI, No. 4 (June, 1948), pp. 209-210.

At least three important facts stand out from these studies. First, knowledge of subject matter is related to success in teaching. Out of the 28 studies, a positive correlation between knowledge of subject matter taught and teaching efficiency was reported in 27 instances. Zero correlations, or no relationship, was found in 3 cases while negative relationships did not exist. Second, knowledge of professional practices and techniques is essential. In 27 studies, cases of positive correlations numbered 46, no negative correla-

tions were recorded, and 5 zero correlations were found. Third, scholarship, or grade point average, correlated positively with teaching efficiency 55 times with 1 negative and 3 zero correlations in 27 studies. The data suggest clearly that teachers must know their subject, be able to use professional practices and techniques, be good students, and possess skill in the use of language.

Personal Attributes

In the profession of teaching, personal qualities may make or mar one's success. Teachers achieve results through their personalities as well as through their teaching methods. In other words, what an individual is as a person and what he does as a teacher are both vital factors in the teaching and learning process. The importance of the human equation has been recognized for many years and was effectively summarized by James A. Garfield when, at a meeting of Williams College Alumni in 1871, he said: "The ideal college is Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a student on the other." Garfield's aphorism has been referred to many times to emphasize the necessity for inspired teaching.

Caution must be observed when appraising the personal attributes essential for successful teaching. Particularly is this true when human characteristics are arbitrarily classified into isolated categories and priorities are assigned regarding their purported value without reference to their composite interrelationships and total impact. Such a process de-emphasizes, or possibly ignores, the dynamic aspect of personality. It may well lose, as psychologists point out, the complete human being in the analysis. The personal qualities enumerated below will not necessarily guarantee an individual's success as a teacher. They are, however, likely to be present, to various degrees and in differing combinations, in the personalities of those who become good teachers.

Three major approaches to ascertaining the personal traits essential for teaching success have been followed. First, important groups, such as the National Education Association, have developed empirically derived lists of personal qualities. Second, investigators have asked pupils to enumerate traits possessed by their favorite teacher. Third, research studies have tested observational techniques and other devices to identify the qualities of successful teachers. Examples of each of the three major ap-

proaches illustrate their value.

Intelligence, respect for self and teaching, and desire to teach are the first qualities sought in a potential teacher. Myers and Williams published a summary of personal qualities or traits which are said to characterize successful teachers. The listing of the qualities is in random order: ⁶

1. Vigorous health
2. Intelligence
3. Liking for study
4. Emotional maturity and balance
5. Love of children
6. Sympathy or social intelligence
7. Interest in and liking for teaching
8. Cheerfulness and sense of humor
9. Friendliness
10. Good work habits
11. Co-operativeness
12. Breadth of interest
13. Tolerance
14. Good judgment
15. Sense of justice
16. Good appearance and voice
17. Ability to explain clearly
18. Personality is the total of these traits and others.

According to pupils, the teacher's underlying personality is the most important factor in successful teaching. In a study involving 453 junior high school pupils and trained observers, it was concluded that the superior teachers thoroughly liked boys and girls, were secure and self-assured, and were personally organized.⁷

Another study of the opinions of 135 undergraduate students at Stanford University found that the following characteristics were typical of superior teachers: ⁸ (1) The best teacher liked to teach; (2) The best teacher was interested in his subject; (3) The best teacher knew how to teach children; (4) The best teacher was al-

⁶Alonzo Myers and Clarence Williams, *Education in a Democracy* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1934), pp. 319-321.

⁷Perceval M. Symonds, "Characteristics of the Effective Teacher Based on Pupil Evaluations," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 23, No. 4 (June, 1935), p. 252.

⁸George Willard Fraser, *An Introduction to the Study of Education* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1930), pp. 22-24.

ways interested in students; and (5) The best teacher was an individual with an interesting personality.

Fourteen personal qualities have been identified in an evaluation of 150 studies dealing with the measurement and prediction of teaching success. The qualities listed, the number of studies that identified each quality, and the correlation of each trait with success in teaching are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8

SUMMARY OF STUDIES DEALING WITH THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUCCESSFUL TEACHING AND CERTAIN PERSONAL QUALITIES

Personal Quality of Teachers Studied	Number of Studies ^a	Correlation with Teaching Success ^b		
		P	N	O
1. Teaching aptitude	6	16	2	14
2. Resourcefulness	6	8	0	2
3. Intelligence	40	44	1	16
4. Emotional stability	31	33	0	13
5. Considerateness	27	38	0	3
6. Buoyancy	24	42	0	1
7. Objectivity	20	26	0	1
8. Drive	11	19	0	0
9. Dominance	21	24	0	9
10. Attractiveness	24	27	0	0
11. Refinement	6	8	0	0
12. Co-operativeness	9	13	0	0
13. Reliability	11	28	0	0
14. Personality, general	19	34	0	2

^a There is some overlapping in studies listed as more than one criterion of success was used in some studies.

^b Code: positive correlations—P; negative correlations—N; zero correlations—O.

SOURCE: Adapted from A. S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Success," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. XVI, No. 4 (June, 1948), pp. 207-208.

The findings of investigations summarized by Barr back in 1948 are supported by current research reports. For example, Rhodes and Peckham asked school administrators who employed Los Angeles State College graduates to rate various factors that pre-

sumably correlate with success in teaching. The personal qualities ranked highest were emotional poise, health and vitality, and enthusiasm and forcefulness. Under professional competence, the qualities which ranked high were ability to plan and motivate lessons, development of pupil morale, knowledge of basic skills, and knowledge of subject matter.*

Traits must blend in an appropriate fashion and function actively as well as harmoniously before they can contribute to success in teaching. The total composite of traits possessed by an individual often is more significant than any one strong attribute. Then, too, the willingness and ability of a person to make the most of his qualities is an important factor in success.

Personal traits can and do change. With the exception of intelligence, which though innate can be developed, most of the traits that combine to form what is called personality can, within limits for each individual, be cultivated. Improvement in personal traits depends, first of all, upon the degree to which the individual is motivated. Equally important is the objectivity of self-analysis that is achieved to identify strengths and weaknesses. The definition of goals and development of a systematic plan to engage in activities and practice to refine particular traits are other steps toward such a goal. In some cases—as, for example, with emotional problems, lack of drive or buoyancy, or unattractive personal bearing—the individual may need professional help. Often such assistance can play a vital role in helping develop personal qualities needed for successful teaching.

Interest Patterns

A person who has selected teaching as a career, or is considering it, should identify his own interest patterns with insight, candor, and accuracy. He should be fully cognizant of the fact that the worthiness of the motives underlying the choice of teaching are vital in determining his success or failure in the profession. After an individual has carefully and honestly identified his own interest patterns, he should check them against those of others who have prepared to teach. Research reports may help to facilitate

* Fred C. Rhodes and Dorothy R. Peckham, "Evaluations of Beginning Teachers: Pointers and Opinions," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. XI, No. 1 (March, 1960), p. 30.

such checking.

The interests of 215 prospective teachers in 14 Pennsylvania colleges, 452 Pennsylvania public school teachers in service, and 78 outstanding teachers in service were studied by Robinson. A summary of the various interests of each group is presented in Table 9.

TABLE 9

**REASONS PROSPECTIVE AND IN-SERVICE TEACHERS GAVE
FOR CHOOSING TEACHING AS A CAREER**

Reason	Prospective Teachers		In-Service Teachers		Superior Teachers	
	Per Cent of Men	Per Cent of Women	Per Cent of Men	Per Cent of Women	Per Cent of Men	Per Cent of Women
Attractive profession	16	8	18	13	14	18
Love of teaching children	15	35	9	26	6	15
Liking for subject field	14	6	13	8	8	9
Service—idealism	4	2	6	2	3	2
Financial reasons	20	6	14	6	10	5
Family influence	13	16	8	17	15	21
Influence of teachers	12	19	16	12	19	20
Accidental—just drifted	6	8	16	16	25	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

SOURCE: Adapted from Donald W. Robinson, *Analysis of Motives for the Choice of Teaching*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1944.

This sample is not sufficiently large to suggest with complete reliability the reasons why all teachers choose this profession. It is valuable, however, because it reflects a degree of agreement by prospective teachers, those in service, and outstanding teachers about reasons of choice. It will be noted that interest in young people, liking for subject field, and influence of family or teachers are ranked high as reasons people gave for choosing teaching.

These same reasons have been identified in other investigations. For example, Best reported a study that involved 122 senior men and 112 senior women at the University of Wisconsin who were preparing to teach. He found the principal reasons mentioned for choosing teaching to be, in order of frequency: (1) genuine interest in children or young people, (2) opportunity to work in major field of interest, (3) the fact that teaching offers a life-long opportunity to learn, (4) students like to work with people, (5) security, and (6) a good job to fall back on in case of emergency. Best also reported some of the narrative comments made by respondents. Some typical ones were: ¹⁰

I chose teaching because I like to work with youth, and teaching is the best way to help teenagers. I like the chance for summer work in another field or advanced study in the same field.

I chose teaching while overseas in New Guinea. We can only preserve our democracy by a better and more adequate education.

I chose teaching because it was the only way for me to make the most of my profession (Art) without sacrificing my interests for commercial success. I like my major well enough to stay with it and see that it is understood by other people.

I chose teaching because of my desire to help young people—to give them better guidance and preparation than I received.

I chose teaching because of my desire to live in a small community with reasonable security and prestige.

I chose teaching because of my intense interest in intellectual pursuits and the recognition of the worthiness of the teaching field as a profession.

Teaching combines my love of literature with the satisfaction of creating ideas and teaching these ideas to others.

I chose teaching because I like people, would like to help children, and because it gives me an opportunity to work in my major field of interest.

I have decided it would act as an insurance policy if anything ever happened in the future which would demand my working after marrying.

¹⁰ John Wesley Best, "A Study of Certain Selected Factors Underlying the Choice of Teaching as a Profession," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. XVII, No. 1 (September, 1948), pp. 218-219.

Summary of Qualities Demanded for Successful Teaching ✓

The foregoing consideration of the personal qualities and reasons for choosing teaching that have been found fairly typical of outstanding teachers and others planning to enter the profession suggests that successful teachers: (1) are above average in intelligence as compared with other college students; (2) are better-than-average college students; (3) like and seek to understand people; (4) are able to communicate ideas effectively to others; (5) enjoy good health, both mental and physical; (6) like to study and are intellectually curious; (7) are socially and emotionally mature; (8) believe in the worth of teaching; (9) enjoy associating with young people; and (10) possess personality characteristics that enable them to work with people.

VERIFICATION OF CHOICE OF TEACHING ✓

Two major sources of information are available to help a person ascertain whether or not he is qualified to prepare for a career in teaching. First, a candid and searching self-appraisal enables him to catalogue his strengths and weaknesses and to compare his interests, goals, and abilities with those required for successful teaching. Objective check lists are available to those who wish to engage in serious self-analysis. The second source of information available to students might be referred to as objective aids. Included are such aids as health examinations, speech tests, vocational interest inventories, personality adjustment scales, and general intelligence as well as achievement tests.

Self-Analysis

An examination of life objectives should help to identify a person's philosophy of life. And a person's philosophy influences and directs his rational behavior more than any other single force. The prospective teacher should be thoroughly acquainted with his own value system and those that motivate teachers. He should be cognizant of the fact that teaching is seldom the rapid approach to fame, social prominence, or economic abundance. The honest, forthright person recognizes that the greatest reward of teaching as a profession will be the inner satisfaction that comes from stimu-

lating the intellectual development of students, while performing socially essential professional work. To be content with such compensation requires a high degree of emotional stability and a system of values that places service to humanity above selfish interests.

The value system of a teacher in the United States must commit him to the cause of democracy as a form of government and personal freedom and respect as goals of human institutions. The teacher must stand unyieldingly against the forces that ever tend to restrict or limit human rights or deny arbitrarily opportunity to individuals or groups. He must protect the ideals and form of democratic self-government against any form of authoritarianism. Those who teach must believe in: (1) the dignity of man, without exceptions; (2) the brotherhood of man, as a characteristic of civilization; (3) constitutional freedoms and democratic processes, as the surest avenues to justice and sound government; (4) the obligations of man to "walk in dignity and decency" as an individual and to accept fully his responsibilities as a citizen; (5) the essential capacity for good possessed by all men, implemented by the strength of spiritual values; and (6) the perpetuation of freedom of mankind through knowledge and its wise application. Such commitments compose a teacher's philosophy of life, or value system. Their importance has led to a long-established truism, "as we look upon life, so we teach."

Identification of interests is another way for the individual to analyze his commitment to teaching. He may begin by selecting the school subjects he prefers to study; he may then identify the hobbies or extracurricular activities which interest him most, study his reading preferences, and examine the other kinds of work or recreational activities which have greatest appeal for him. In teaching, interest must be closely associated with the field to be taught, with scholarly, intellectual, or possibly creative endeavors, and with processes that extend over substantial periods of time.

Self-analysis should also include examination of one's skill in human relations with classmates. College students work with each other in clubs, fraternities, sororities, classes, and religious organizations as well as in various other groups and associations. The extent to which a person is successful as an active and participat-

ing member in college activities is a good indication of how well he will work with his fellow teachers, administrators, service clubs, members of Parent-Teacher Associations, or church organizations. The prospective teacher should accurately identify his successes and failures in working with classmates.

Practically all good teachers have enjoyed success as leaders. Teaching is leadership in developmental situations; the teacher leads his pupils to plan and evaluate learning experiences, to participate in class discussions; to gather, organize, and interpret information. Leadership ability shows itself early in a person's school life, even in kindergarten. By the time a student reaches college, therefore, he can adduce substantial evidence as to his leadership ability or lack thereof.

The foregoing points or guide lines in self-analysis may be supplemented by using a comprehensive check list, such as the one below, as a guide. The separate items may provide insight into the variety of qualities that make for success in teaching. Each item may be scored by the degree comparison scale on the right side.

TABLE 10

CHECK LIST FOR VERIFICATION OF CHOICE OF TEACHING

Item	Excellent	Good	Average	Fair	Poor
A. Personal qualities					
1. Intelligence					
2. Emotional stability					
3. Resourcefulness					
4. Courtesy and refinement					
5. Reliability					
6. Common sense					
7. Tact					
8. Fairness					
9. Co-operativeness					
10. Personality					
11. Buoyancy					
12. Sincerity, naturalness					
13. Teaching aptitude					
14. Drive					
15. Idealism					
16. Courage					
17. Ability to enjoy					

TABLE 10 Continued

Item	Excellent	Good	Average	Fair	Poor
18. Initiative and self-reliance					
19. Considerateness					
20. Leadership ability					
B. Knowledge					
1. Broad academic background					
2. Historical knowledge					
3. Scientific knowledge					
4. Literary knowledge					
5. Geographical knowledge					
6. Technological knowledge					
7. Aesthetic knowledge and appreciation					
8. English language					
9. Teaching major					
10. Teaching minor(s)					
C. Professional preparation					
1. Interest in professional courses					
2. Success in professional courses					
3. Teaching skill					
4. Quality of professional preparation					
5. Balance in professional courses					
6. Attitude toward education					
D. Life experiences					
1. Success in working with young people					
2. Enjoyment of working with young people					
3. Reading for breadth					
4. Consideration given to various occupations					
5. Travel					
6. Success in working with classmates					
7. Leadership achievements					
8. Enjoy people					
E. Health					
1. Health habits					
2. General health					
3. Health knowledge					
4. Health program					
F. Social concepts and practices					
1. Character					

TABLE 10 *Continued*

Item	Excellent	Good	Average	Fair	Poor
2. Appreciation of human welfare problems					
3. Citizenship activities					
4. Social conscience					
5. Integrity					
6. Understanding and appreciation of people					
G. <i>Educational philosophy</i>					
1. Comprehensiveness of					
2. Thought devoted to					
3. Usefulness					
4. Dynamic qualities					

Another type of check list has been developed by the National Association of Manufacturers. Rather specific questions are listed under four headings—desire to learn, desire to teach, getting along with people, and good character. Under all four of these areas, important questions have been listed. By answering each question thoughtfully a student may gain additional insight concerning his interest in and personal qualification for teaching. As will be observed, positive replies reflect promise for success.¹¹

Desire to Learn

1. Do you enjoy reading books, magazines, newspapers?
2. Do you like to browse in a library?
3. When turning the pages of a newspaper, do you find something interesting on practically every page?
4. When looking up a word in the dictionary, do you often find yourself stopping to see the meaning of other words, too?
5. Do you ask lots of questions of other grownups whose intelligence you admire?
6. Do you enjoy solving puzzles, especially those that teach you something, such as crossword puzzles?
7. Do you like to take things apart and put them back together to see what makes them work?
8. Do studying and learning come easy to you when you really get interested in a subject?

¹¹ National Association of Manufacturers, *Your Career as a Teacher* (New York: The Association, 1953), p. 11.

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9. Do you often go deeper into a subject than is necessary to pass the course?
10. Are your school grades generally better than average especially when you're interested in the subject and the teacher?

Desire to Teach

11. Do your friends come to you for help when in trouble?
12. Do you give help readily?
13. Do people generally take your advice to heart?
14. Do you give advice sympathetically, without poking fun or making sarcastic remarks?
15. Do children interest you enough to keep answering their endless questions?
16. Are you a leader in Scouting or similar groups?
17. Do you enjoy explaining things to your parents, or younger brothers or sisters, or your friends?
18. When somebody seems "dumb" and just doesn't seem to get what you're talking about, do you remain patient and go on trying to explain?

Getting Along with People

19. Are you free of temper tantrums and irritability?
20. Do you get along with parents, brothers and sisters?
21. Do you have a good sense of humor—even when the joke's on you?
22. Are you a good loser?
23. Do you have a lot of friends?
24. Are you a good team player, even when you're pushed back out of the spotlight?

Good Character

25. Do you feel strongly about such matters as human worth and dignity, freedom from oppression, rights of private property, civic duties?
26. No matter how you express it, do you believe in the brotherhood of man and the Fatherhood of God?
27. Would you refrain from lying or stealing even though you thought you could get away with it?
28. Do you avoid bragging?
29. Do you take good care of your appearance? Health? Physical condition?
30. Do you attend your church or synagogue regularly?

A student who answers "yes" to most of the preceding questions and who has a high rating on the check list for Verification of Choice of Teaching, Table 10, should be a good prospect for the profession of teaching. However, it should be remembered that all affirmative replies and a high percentage of "excellent" or "good" checks will not guarantee success as a teacher. Such lists, no matter how objectively they may be applied, cannot measure that dynamic quality of effort so aptly illustrated by the fable of the Tortoise and the Hare.

Objective Aids

Objective aids are available to assist in the verification of choice of teaching. These aids—health examinations, speech tests, vocational interest inventories, personality adjustment scales, achievement tests, and mental ability tests—furnish objective data that may enhance the reliability of self-analysis. The final result of self-analysis should be a composite of a large number of estimates. Examples of objective aids include:

Health examinations. Medical examinations can identify chronic diseases and physical disabilities which might bar an individual from certification for teaching. They also will reveal existing patterns of deficiency in energy or physical vigor which may mitigate against success in a work as demanding on physical and nervous energy as is teaching.

The problem of discovering weaknesses in mental health is more difficult. Here, too, professional help is available to aid the individual to discover problems of mental health that need attention. Certain tests of personal adjustment, such as the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory*, the *Rorschach Tests*, and the *Thematic Apperception Test*, can help to uncover signs of deep emotional and mental stability problems. Psychiatric analysis and counseling are available on some college campuses to assist students in verifying their mental health fitness.

Each individual will, of course, have some insight relative to the general status of both his physical and mental health. If his habits of health practice have included regular check-up examinations by his family physician, he will be conscious of his health pattern and sensitive to any significant changes that may occur. Regarding his mental health the intelligent college student will,

typically, be able to ascertain to some extent such factors as: self-acceptance; emotional stability as opposed to rigidity; capacity for self-discipline; adaptability; existence of wholesome attitudes toward work, other human beings, and life in general; and capacity to organize life activities so that wholesome balance is maintained.

Speech tests. In 27 studies reported by Barr, a significant positive correlation was found between speaking ability and success in teaching.¹² Better programs in the preservice education of teachers recognize the importance of speech skills for teaching by requiring either speech tests or a minimum amount of course work in the field. Prospective teachers should take appropriate tests from recognized speech clinics or departments of speech in college or universities. An example of the types of speech factors considered in such examinations is presented in Table 11.

TABLE 11

A CHECK LIST FOR VOICE AND SPEECH

Speech Factor	Needs Attention	Satisfactory or Superior
<i>Quality of Voice: Is his voice</i>		
1. Too high pitched?		
2. Nasal?		
3. Strained?		
4. Breathly?		
5. Varied in pitch?		
6. Clear and distinct?		
7. Rich and colorful?		
8. Adapted to the size of the listening group?		
9. Well controlled and modulated?		
10. Resonant?		
<i>Unpleasant Speech Mannerisms: Does he speak</i>		
1. Too fast?		
2. In a drawling manner?		
3. Lippingly?		
4. Gruffly?		
5. Too slowly?		
6. In an uncertain, halting, or stumbling manner?		
7. With an affected accent?		

¹² A. S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. XVI, No. 4 (June, 1943), p. 210.

TABLE 11 *Continued*

Speech Factor	Needs Attention	Satisfactory or Superior
<i>General Speech: Does he</i>		
1. Pronounce words correctly?		
2. Enunciate carefully?		
3. Use slang inappropriately or excessively?		
4. Keep calm, free from anger and excitement?		
5. Employ concepts adapted to his audience?		
6. Adapt voice to the occasion?		
7. Use proper inflection?		
8. Show evidence of an adequate vocabulary?		

SOURCE: Raleigh Schorling, and Howard T. Batchelder, *Student Teaching in Secondary Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958), p. 17.

This check list may be used in several ways by: the individual to evaluate his own voice and speech; a trained speech specialist as a basis for appraisal of a client, and by prospective teachers who may desire to use it as a guide in evaluating each other. It should be remembered, however, that the use of such lists by students should not take the place of speech tests administered by experts or for appropriate course work in the speech field.

Vocational interest inventories. Standardized interest inventories are used to assist people to ascertain their vocational inclinations. It may seem strange that a person has to find out what his own interests are, but counseling authorities indicate that many college students cannot identify their own vocational interests.¹³

Occupational counselors have recognized both the values and limitations of interest inventories. On the positive side, each individual needs to be aware of the fact that through directed effort and use of his ability he may gain more satisfaction from one activity than from another. Thus, one occupation holds more promise of satisfaction and success than another. On the negative side, what is often expressed as interest is nothing more than preference. Motivation is not likely to accompany preferences to the same extent that it goes with interests. It is a matter of degree, but still an important difference.

Several standardized vocational interest inventories are avail-

¹³ Eli Ginzberg and others, *Occupational Choice* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 245.

able. Among the more widely used are the *Kuder Preference Record* and the *Strong Vocational Interest Blank*.

Personality adjustment scales. Why is it that pupils are happier and learn more with some teachers than with others having apparently equal qualifications? Most pupils would answer "Personality of the teacher." Personality is a term used generally to "connote the total complex of an individual's traits or characteristics that act as drives or inner directors of his overt behavior. . . ." ¹⁴

Numerous personality scales and tests are available. *The Bell Adjustment Inventory*, *Bernreuter Personality Inventory*, *California Personality Inventory*, *Rorschach Test*, *Thurstone Personality Schedule*, and *Willoughby Emotional Maturity Scale* are among the better known ones.

Achievement and scholastic ability tests. Teaching requires above-average mental ability as compared to other professions. And scholastic attainment above the ordinary usually accompanies superior intellectual ability, if the student is serious about his work.

Standardized test results make it possible for a person to compare his mental ability and scholastic achievement with those of other students. Among the better-known tests of mental ability are the *American Council on Education Psychological Examination (A.C.E.)*, the *College Entrance Examination Board*, and the *Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability*. Widely used achievement tests include the *California Achievement Tests* and the *Co-operative General Achievement Test*.

SOURCES OF HELP FOR MAKING CHOICE

Furnished with a still-life tableau of the career of the teacher, a prospective member of the teaching profession may find it difficult to project himself into such a role and to consider his qualifications for teaching. Realistic self-evaluation is demanded, but as a single basis for making the decision to enter teaching, this procedure is rather tenuous. Also, to consider only a list of qualities, traits, and characteristics of the successful teacher—such as those presented in this chapter—would be to overlook certain important intangible factors basic to so important a judgment. Such ap-

¹⁴ Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow, *Mental Hygiene* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1931), p. 230.



Graduate work is a means by which teachers strengthen their professional preparation (see page 319). ABOVE: A lecturer in English at Yale reviews the papers of a teacher who has earned a master of arts in teaching with the aid of a foundation fellowship. RIGHT: A student at the University of Cincinnati studying for his Ph.D. in engineering with a view to teaching the subject. BELOW: A graduate seminar at Johns Hopkins University. (Photos, the Ford Foundation, by William R. Simmons)





Opportunities for people with specialized teaching abilities will continue to increase (see pages 196-198). At top, a music teacher leading a class in singing with tone bar accompaniment (Bronxville Public Schools, N.Y.). Center, a psychologist testing a student (Hahn Campus School, Nebraska State Teachers College, Wayne, Nebraska) and a counselor interacting with a child (local boy, Board of Edu-

proaches are analogous to looking through a microscope at the cell structure of a flower and becoming so involved with the mechanics that one forgets the form of the blossom.

Empirical evidence and research studies indicate that individuals seek and receive help in selecting their occupation from three major sources. Parents and friends, teachers, and professional counselors influence vocational choices of young people.¹⁵

Research investigations repeatedly confirm the fact that parents and friends play key roles in influencing the vocational choices of young people. One study indicated that 45.3 per cent of a group of 95 students gave their reason for wanting to teach as "the encouragement from friends, relatives, and teachers."¹⁶ Another research report stated that 40 per cent of a sample of students in the school of education at the University of Wisconsin indicated parents, friends, and teachers had influenced their vocational choice.¹⁷

As students select their occupations, teachers are able to be of assistance to them for several reasons. First, teachers are intimately associated with students at the time that many are choosing their occupations. A surprisingly large number of students who decide to enter teaching do so at an early age. Some studies indicated that as many as 40 per cent of those who choose teaching do so while they are in the seventh or eighth grade.¹⁸ Another study indicated that 44 per cent of those who selected the teaching profession made their choices by the end of the tenth grade.¹⁹

Teachers know their students, and they also are familiar with requirements for success in various occupations. Their skill in helping students analyze their potentialities is an invaluable aid as is the wisdom of their advice.

Guidance counselors can be of inestimable value. Many colleges or universities have a guidance and counseling center. Smaller

¹⁵ For a recent research report that is germane, see J. Kenneth Little, *Explorations into the College Plans and Experiences of High School Graduates* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1960).

¹⁶ Lee D. Pigott, "What is the Principal's Role in the Recruitment and Training of Future Teachers?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, Vol. 35 (March, 1951), p. 70.

¹⁷ Lawrence P. Blum, "A Comparative Study of Students Preparing for Five Selected Professions Including Teaching," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 16 (September, 1947), p. 63.

¹⁸ Pigott, *op. cit.*, p. 70.

¹⁹ Benjamin Fine, "Education in Review," *New York Times* (October 14, 1951), p. 9.

colleges often make available faculty members who have specialized in counseling to administer tests and to consult with students. Even if such a center is not available in a student's own school, it is likely that services of this type can be obtained at some institution nearby. Trained personnel in guidance and counseling centers can administer tests, conduct interviews, and in many other ways assist individuals in the selection of an occupation. Each individual should validate his self-evaluation and his choice of the teaching profession by utilizing the assistance of specialists in guidance and counseling.

SUMMARY

The best should teach. The profession of teaching is a demanding one. Successful teaching requires "the brightest minds, the finest personalities, . . . the soundest moral and spiritual commitments," and good health. Further, good teachers put service to humanity above self.

The selection of an occupation is of enduring importance to the individual. A person's work influences his family living, social relationships, recreational activities, and health. The occupation he chooses should provide ample opportunities for self-realization, wholesome interpersonal relationships, self-respect, and personal satisfaction.

As a general rule, successful teachers possess certain intellectual and personal qualities. Among these are: a broad cultural background, including sound scholarship, good work habits, skill in oral and written language, and adeptness in the solution of intellectual and social problems; a high level of general intelligence as represented by above-average scores on mental capacity tests as compared to other college students; intense specialization in the subjects taught; knowledge of the structure and processes of education, including learning, child development, and the organization and purposes of schools; knowledge of the techniques of instruction and functional skill in teaching; and an over-all synthesis of personal traits that reflect a mature, well-adjusted, wholesome, well-balanced person. In addition, successful teachers enjoy good health, both physical and mental; they enjoy working with young people and have highly developed commitments to social responsibilities.

Those who choose to teach usually have similar interest patterns. Typically, they go into the profession because of their desire to work with people, their interest in a subject field and desire to continue its study, and their commitment to values that place service to humanity ahead of personal goals.

Those who are considering teaching as a career should subject themselves to extensive self-analysis to verify the validity of such a choice. This process may well begin with an identification and appraisal of individual systems of values which give life its direction.

Objective aids are available to supplement and complement the process of self-analysis. Medical examinations, speech tests, vocational interest inventories, and various other standardized evaluation instruments are available which can be valuable aids when administered and interpreted by professionally competent people.

Finally, after a person has carefully analyzed himself and collected objective evidence with regard to his suitability for the teaching profession, he may seek the counsel of parents, friends, teachers, and guidance specialists. Assistance of this type can be of inestimable value to the individual who is trying to validate his decision to become a teacher.

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PREPARATION FOR
TEACHING

Comte's formula *Voir pour prévoir; prévoir pour pouvoir*—"To see in order to foresee; to foresee in order to gain power"—is sound advice to prospective teachers. Not only should the student be familiar with the qualities essential for successful teaching considered in Chapter 7, he should know the type of program of studies as well as the certification requirements established for admission to the profession.

The preservice preparation of teachers rests upon the trilogy of liberal education, specialized subject matter, and professional education. The essential foundation for preparation for teaching is a liberal education. The teacher must also possess deep and broad knowledge of his teaching field and adequate preparation in the processes and practice of education. Certification provisions in the various states embody minimum requirements for teaching licenses. Such legal regulations usually specify in quantitative terms the amount of liberal education, specialized subject matter, and professional education necessary for admission to practice.

**THE TRILOGY OF LIBERAL EDUCATION, SPECIALIZED
SUBJECT MATTER, AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION**

The education of teachers consists of three interrelated emphases: a broad liberal education, specialization in the subject or fields to be taught, and professional knowledge and skills. Each of these aspects is indispensable in the preparation of teachers. However, the relative emphasis that each should receive provokes strong disagreements among educators. The lack of agreement usually revolves around the question: "How much time should a student devote to courses in (1) his teaching field, (2) general education, and (3) professional education?" Despite lack of general agreement, professors of education and those in the liberal arts fields along with other interested college and university officials have in-

tensified efforts in recent years to improve programs of teacher education.

Any disagreement between liberal arts and education professors is rooted in a larger, long-standing disagreement over the manner in which liberal and professional education should be provided. As preparation for the professions became more specialized, the conflict between the historical philosophy of the liberal arts college and the new service-oriented departments serving applied fields increased.

A statement in the Yale College catalogue of 1829-1830 outlines the liberal arts position: "The object, in a proper collegiate department, is not to teach that which is peculiar to any one of the professions; but to lay the foundation which is common to them all." Such a philosophy made professional or technical education of any kind generally incompatible with liberal education in colleges and universities of the nineteenth century. Educational preparation for the professions and positions in business, industry, and agriculture was forced into separate schools, apart from the liberal arts college, either within the structural organization of the university or in newly created institutions designed specifically for such purposes. The agricultural college is perhaps the best-known example of the latter. Thus, to the schism that existed between liberal arts and professional preparation was added an isolation of departments, schools, and institutions that reduced communication and negated understanding and co-operation.

In the midst of the turmoil between advocates of liberal education and those responsible for various types of professional preparation, the latter half of the nineteenth century saw the appearance of the crusade to professionalize teaching, led by Horace Mann, Calvin Stowe, James G. Carter, and Edmund Dwight. These pioneers of the common school movement recognized that the new democratic school system being developed required teachers professionally prepared for their mission. Efforts to introduce pedagogical courses into liberal arts colleges were resisted bitterly by administrators and faculties of such institutions who were already entrenched against the expanding inroads of applied fields. Antagonisms against professional and technical programs—which originally had been generated against medicine and law but were literally fanned to intense proportions by the battle against agri-

cultural and mechanical courses—were unleashed full blast against the new proposals to develop professional preparation for teachers. So bitter was the resistance of liberal arts colleges, yet so strong was the determination of the American people to provide better training for teachers, that state legislatures established, as they were forced to do in the field of agriculture, separate institutions to provide professional preparation for teaching. Consequently, the normal school which later became the teachers college was created, and the schism and isolation of organization between liberal arts and professional education encompassed teacher education. Thus the conflict between liberal arts professors and leaders of public education was perpetuated for a century to the detriment of both the liberal arts and teacher education.

The Liberal Arts-Professional Education Controversy

The controversy between liberal arts and professional education intensified at the beginning of the twentieth century. As chairs of education were established and departments as well as schools of education were added in universities, the battle lines became quickly drawn over the value of professional education and the amount of time that prospective teachers should devote to liberal studies, fields of specialization, pedagogical courses, and practice teaching. The arguments often revolve around the artificial, arbitrary alignment of subject matter versus pedagogy; yet in most instances proponents of either side will agree that in reality it is not a question of "either-or," but rather one of degree of emphasis on both.

The more radical opponents of professional education maintain that teaching ability is innate, that "teachers are born, rather than developed." Naturally, they insist, the study of pedagogy is a waste of time. They eagerly quote individual students who have criticized courses in education to prove their point. Counter accusations, usually made by professors of education, have held that many liberal arts professors are unprepared professionally, know little about adapting their instruction to individual differences, and typically ignore sound principles of learning and teaching. Criticisms of education courses, professors of education contend, are often defensive devices used by college teachers to pro-

tect themselves from ever being required to learn anything about teaching.

Progress toward achieving an acceptable balance between liberal and professional studies. Despite the conflict, which continues with vigor on some college campuses, substantial progress has been made toward achieving agreements between professors of liberal arts and those in education relative to the balance between courses in their respective fields that is desirable and acceptable to each group. Such agreements have reduced the over-emphasis on pedagogy that prevailed in early normal schools and in teachers colleges and increased the emphasis on liberal education. Similarly, the amount of work required for general education purposes and in the subject fields of the individual's specialization has been increased in teacher education programs. Many institutions have also increased the number of semester hours required for graduation from teacher education curriculums. It is apparent that the addition of the professional phase of teacher education has been added in many instances without reducing materially the amount of time devoted to liberal education or specialization in subject fields. Only about 15 per cent, in fact, of the work required for legal certification for high school teachers is devoted to the study of pedagogy and the practice, under supervision, of teaching. The median for state certification for elementary teachers is 20 per cent. Individual teacher education institutions often have requirements that are higher than those set forth in certification regulations. The allocation is reasonably satisfactory to both professors of liberal arts and education, except those who deny that the coexistence of these two aspects of the program of teacher education should be encouraged at all.

The fallacy of stereotyping a field of study. Antagonists from both liberal arts and professional education have been guilty of stereotyping each other. The stereotype of education courses is that they are devoid of substance, deal only with superficialities and "common-sense" principles, and overemphasize untested theory and dogma. On the other hand, liberal arts professors are characterized by many educationists as uninformed about and disinterested in the problems of elementary and secondary schools, opposed to any courses that prepare for professional practice, and unconcerned about the quality of their own instruction. Ob-

viously, both of these stereotypes are erroneous. This type of generalization is a reflection of an emotionalized response instead of an objective appraisal of pertinent facts.

Lack of information has also led to charges and countercharges. This condition and its cause have been described succinctly by Richey:¹

Often the violence of the controversy between the relative importance of subject matter courses and professional courses is directly proportional to the lack of understanding which the disputant has of the field which he condemns. Individuals who are well informed in both areas seldom enter into any such controversy.

Areas of agreement are increasing. A significant widening in areas of agreement has occurred in recent years among those who are responsible for the education of teachers. Many, perhaps most, faculty members in teacher-preparing institutions agree that prospective teachers need a broad liberal education and an adequate knowledge of teaching fields, as well as an understanding of the processes of education and skill in teaching. All favor, too, sufficient electives to enable students to develop special talents and interests and to correct deficiencies. A statement by a committee of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education indicates that the highest priority in terms of importance and time required must go to liberal education.²

The choice of what to emphasize in the preservice curriculum requires a balancing of values. The Committee believes, however, that being a well-educated person is so essential to the satisfactory performance of the functions of a teacher at all levels as to justify an emphasis upon liberal education at the preservice level.

Further evidence that those responsible for the field of professional education desire a conjunction of the academic and the pedagogic in the preparation of teachers is found in a research study by Hartford. His survey of opinions, of a sample of 53 administrators and 35 board members from institutions that prepare teachers, revealed that the area to which the administrators and board members attached the most importance was the cur-

¹ Robert W. Richey, *Planning for Teaching* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958), p. 120.

² Earl W. Armstrong, "The Teacher Education Curriculum," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 8 (September, 1957), p. 236.

riculum of preservice programs for teachers. The participants in the study identified four top elements in a good program of teacher education:³

1. A sound general education
2. Knowledge of children and how they learn
3. Ability to relate what goes on in the classroom to the problems and needs of the community and of democratic society as a whole
4. Thorough grounding in the specialized subject matter to be taught

Key groups representing the traditional disciplines have acknowledged the value of professional education. The National Council of Independent Schools is on record as follows: " . . . our observation of recent developments in teacher training persuades us that the professional study of education, *when such study is rigorous and disciplined*, can appreciably increase a teacher's perception and effectiveness."

The important book entitled *The Case for Basic Education*, written by 18 scholars from various basic disciplines, representing the Council for Basic Education, and edited by James D. Koerner, decries the isolation that has prevailed between those in liberal arts and professional education. Writing in the Foreword, the editor said: "The future, however, may be brighter than the past. In very recent years, and as yet in a very limited way, scholarly studies of the public school curriculum, particularly in science and mathematics, have been undertaken once again. This augurs well for the resolution of conflicts that now animate and often embitter the relations between scholars and schoolmen."

The organization that has made the greatest contribution to harmonious working relationships between liberal arts professors and those in professional education and to a blueprint for a sound revision of teacher education curriculums is the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. In 1958, under the sponsorship of TEPS, the Bowling Green Conference brought together top-flight people from many disciplines who ex-

³Ellis Ford Hartford, "A Look at the Teacher Education Curriculum," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 7 (March, 1957), p. 78.

⁴National Council of Independent Schools, *Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools* (Boston: The Council, 1953), p. 17.

⁵James D. Koerner, ed., *The Case for Basic Education* (Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1959).

amined teacher education and produced recommendations for improvement of programs of preparation for teachers. The Conference was continued in 1959 at Lawrence, Kansas and in 1960 at San Diego, California. These TEPS conferences, more than any other activity, have contributed to the enhancement of a sound partnership approach to teacher education that involves all disciplines. And leadership for these conferences has come from those in the field of professional education.

While areas of agreement are increasing among faculty personnel who help to prepare teachers, it should not be inferred that the "right" and final way to prepare teachers has been found. Nor should one assume that complete agreement exists as to the relative emphasis to be placed upon the various facets of preservice education for teachers. This same statement may well apply for years to come. In the meantime, the wise student will make the most of his opportunities to learn, whether they are under the aegis of a liberal arts professor or a professor of education. The dichotomy between liberal and professional education, real or imagined, is to be decried by all who are sincerely interested in helping prospective teachers gain the best possible education. The preparation of tomorrow's teachers is too important an assignment to be impeded by internal conflicts between professors; this task demands the maximum efforts of all members of faculties in colleges and universities. Prospective teachers have a right to insist that both professors of liberal arts and education co-operate to provide for them a complete, balanced, and high-quality preparation for their profession.

Desirable allocation of college hours to the trilogy. The typical proportionate allocation of the college program to the areas of the trilogy is shown in Figure 15. The work in liberal education usually is scheduled during the first two years with concentration on the teaching fields in the last two. Professional education may be distributed throughout the four-year program, thus paralleling both liberal arts and specialization; or it may be concentrated, along with the student's major and minor concentrations, in the junior and senior years. A few institutions place all of the professional work, and sometimes some of the subject field courses, in the fifth year.

While distinctions between fields may be necessary for admin-

istrative purposes, it is well for both students and faculty members to keep in mind that the values of the trilogy of teacher education must be assimilated and synthesized to produce effective teachers. Students should seek relationships between various subjects they study with the awareness that ultimately professional strength will depend on the quality of their total preparation and their ability to harmonize knowledge intended for separate purposes.

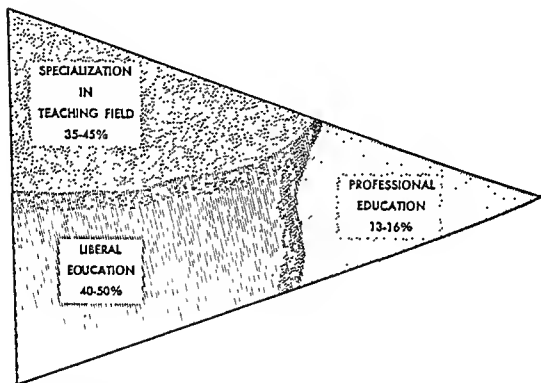


FIGURE 15.

PROPORTIONATE ALLOCATION OF COLLEGE PROGRAM TO TRILOGY AREAS

LIBERAL EDUCATION

The meaning of liberal, as applied to education, has undergone an evolutionary process. In Greek and Roman education, liberal studies were those suitable for the aristocrat. The Seven Liberal Arts of the Middle Ages were for "gentlemen." This concept prevailed for years because higher education was reserved for the privileged social classes, the elite, until recently. The development of modern democracies has been accompanied by a steady ex-

pansion of opportunities for all able young people, irrespective of class status, to go to college. Today, in various countries, and particularly in the United States, colleges and graduate schools are open to all who can meet scholastic and character requirements. Thus, "liberal studies," once reserved for the economically and socially privileged few, are now available to all qualified citizens.

What Is the Purpose of Liberal Education?

Liberal studies are now conceived of as "that part of a student's whole education which looks first of all to his life as a responsible human being and a citizen."⁶ The purposes of liberal studies are to free the mind from ignorance and superstition and to stimulate the individual to search for truth. The aim of liberal education is, essentially, to produce men and women who have integrity and disciplined intelligence, who possess knowledge of self and culture, and who have a system of values worthy of citizens in a free society. James B. Conant has elaborated further on the meaning of liberal or general education:⁷

The heart of the problem of a general education is the continuance of the liberal and humane tradition. Neither the mere acquisition of information nor the development of special skills and talents can give the broad basis of understanding which is essential if our civilization is to be preserved. No one wishes to disparage the importance of being "well informed." But even a good grounding in mathematics and the physical and biological sciences, combined with an ability to read and write several foreign languages, does not provide a sufficient educational background for the citizens of a free nation. For such a program lacks contact with both man's emotional experiences as an individual and his practical experience as a gregarious animal. It includes little of what was once known as "the wisdom of the ages", and might nowadays be described as "our cultural pattern." It includes no history, no art, no literature, no philosophy. Unless the educational process includes at each level of maturity some continuing contact with those fields in which value judgments are of prime importance, it must fall far short of the ideal.

⁶ Harvard University Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society, *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1945).

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. viii.

Teachers in the United States are citizens in a free society. They are members of a profession devoted to providing a liberal education for all. It follows that all prospective teachers must receive a liberal education at least equal in breadth and depth to that represented by a B.A. degree from a good college of arts and sciences.

What Does Liberal Education Include?

The teacher's need for a first-rate liberal education is not dependent upon grade or age level of pupils or the subject to be taught. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards advocates that every teacher pursue liberal studies, including the following fields:^a

Communication. This area could well include such specifics as reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Humanities. This area might include such specifics as literature, art, music, philosophy, and foreign language.

Social Studies. This area might include such specifics as history, economics, geography, and government.

Natural Sciences. This area might include such specifics as (a) biological sciences and physical sciences, and (b) fundamental concepts of mathematics.

Health and Personal Development. This area might include such specifics as mental and physical health, physical education, and home and family living.

Diligent study in these fields will enable the capable student to have a good background of general knowledge. He should be aided to understand how his teaching speciality fits into the total school program. He should be able to make sound judgments regarding his personal and professional life in the light of facts about social, economic, religious, scientific, and political factors operating in any given situation. In short, liberal studies should produce educated teachers.

Certain aspects of what is generally referred to as professional education may serve the purposes of liberal education. Coleman, Metheny, and Skubic called attention to this possibility when

^aNational Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *Teacher Education: The Decade Ahead* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1955), pp. 70-71.

they posed the question:⁹ "Within the structure of existing teacher-education curricula, what can teacher educators do to help their students acquire the breadth of interests, the habits of thinking, and the enlargement of spirit that characterize the liberally-educated person?" The authors indicated a variety of ways to make "education for professional competence . . . include many of the liberalizing elements implicit in the concept of education for the good life."

Education Demands Active Involvement of the Student

At least three attitudes toward education are prevalent among college students. Some students look upon learning as something to be accomplished, with a minimum of effort and without reference to its value and meaning, simply because going to college is the fashion. A meal ticket, from either a job or matrimony, or respectability in a particular social set, is more their goal than the achievement of an education. Strangely enough, some such students do graduate in spite of their superficial objectives and often cynical attitudes toward intellectual development. Yet with their degrees, they remain uneducated. A second group have the hoarding concept of education. They collect and store facts and ideas, repeat them to professors upon appropriate occasions, but never become personally involved in the educational process. Their knowledge is of the inert variety. The third attitude, characteristic of real students, is that education is a never-ending process motivated by an insatiable curiosity and requires a personal love of truth and a problem-solving approach to various situations encountered in life. Those with this attitude are personally involved in the educational process and take a share of the responsibility for their own learning.¹⁰ They know that education is not something that happens to them through the efforts of other people. To paraphrase a dictum from Plato, the punishment of students who refuse to become actively involved in the educational process

⁹ Dorothea S. Coleman, Eleanor Metheny, and Vera Skubic, "Liberalizing the Professional Curriculum," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. XI, No. 1 (March, 1960), p. 41.

¹⁰ For further discussion of the involvement of students in the educational process, see Virginia Voecks, *On Becoming An Educated Person* (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1957), pp. 1-74.

is to remain uneducated.

Implicit in the foregoing discussion is the truism that a mere acquaintance with the liberal studies, in and of itself, will not liberate the mind. As Bergen Evans has noted;¹¹ "A liberal education . . . must be fundamentally self-motivated. . . . A liberal education can't be administered. The student must abstract and absorb it from everything around him—theaters, magazines, newspapers, concerts, museums, television, and conversation." The student must interpret, synthesize, and apply facts and ideas gathered. He must be an active and interested participant in the learning process. His learning will be enhanced in every course he takes, regardless of the instructor's preparation and ability, because he has assumed some responsibility for his own education. Such an individual is on the way to becoming an educated person.

SPECIALIZATION IN TEACHING FIELDS

The effective teacher must have reserves of knowledge far in excess of any demands placed upon him in regular classroom teaching. To acquire the necessary breadth and depth of preparation in his chosen teaching field, the prospective teacher specializes in one or more subjects. In most colleges and universities, this phase of the program is typically described as "majoring or minoring" in various subjects. For example, a person may major in history and minor in English. In some institutions, however, the emphasis may be placed upon the study of a cluster of subjects related to the organization of elementary or secondary school courses, for example, the social studies, language arts, mathematics and physics, or fine arts. The distributive major—that is, equal amounts of work in three or four subject fields—is a new type of development for the specialization of elementary, and some secondary, school teachers.

Why does the teacher need extended scholarly knowledge of the subject taught? The reasons are many and varied. Teachers must know enough to analyze and evaluate textbooks and other instructional materials. In many schools, teachers play an important role in the selection of books and related instructional materials. The teacher must have a thorough understanding of his

¹¹ Bergen Evans, "Liberal Education Can't Wait for College," *The National Parents-Teacher*, Vol. 54, No. 7 (March, 1960), p. 13.

teaching field if he is to see it in proper relationship to all areas in the curriculum. He should see his field in the perspective furnished by a comprehensive view of all teaching areas.

The teacher, if he is to avoid being merely a dealer in information gathered by others, must help press the search for new knowledge. Successful research demands scholarly knowledge about the subject under study.

The teacher must know enough to synthesize and use knowledge and to select the most important and appropriate content for an age level.

Depth of knowledge is necessary if the teacher is to gain and maintain the respect of students.

The teacher needs to experience the satisfaction that is derived from a high level of achievement in the academic world.

The need for specialization in subject matter applies to both high school and elementary school teachers. In practice, however, a difference is often encountered in the subject matter specialization for these two levels of teaching.

Subject Matter Specialization for High School Teachers

Whereas elementary teachers are responsible for practically all subject fields, secondary teachers are typically certified in one or more subject areas. For this reason, secondary teachers usually take a greater amount of advanced work in one or two fields than do elementary teachers.

Before planning a final program of course work, the future secondary school teacher would do well (1) to study certification requirements in the state or states in which he desires to teach; (2) to examine supply-and-demand statistics in various teaching fields; and (3) to study major and minor requirements in the teaching fields in which he is interested. Certification requirements vary from state to state. The student may find descriptions of certification requirements in the various states in appropriate publications.¹² Teacher supply-and-demand statistics may be ob-

¹² W. Earl Armstrong and T. M. Stinnett, *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, revised biennially); Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, and Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, and Junior Colleges* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, issued annually).

tained from the National Education Association. It would also be a good idea to discuss the employment outlook with the teacher placement officer.

The student is advised to study major and minor requirements for the teaching fields in which he is interested because it may be possible to have a double major with a small amount of additional work. In some states secondary teachers must qualify in two or more subject fields because in the small high schools in which many obtain their first positions they are required to teach in several fields, as, for example, in English and speech, history and government, or mathematics and science.

Subject Matter Specialization for Elementary Teachers

Elementary teachers are responsible for teaching most or, in many cases, all basic subject fields. Special teachers are provided in such areas as music, art, physical education, foreign language, and sometimes science. Even when such help is available, the regular classroom teacher works closely with special teachers to help with the instruction in such subjects. Clearly, the elementary teacher needs a broad background that includes all skill and subject fields common to the grade level taught.

Breadth of background is usually easier for the elementary teacher to achieve than is depth of understanding of subjects taught. The commonplace practice of permitting students to major in elementary education frequently results in the prospective teacher's failing to achieve depth in any subject matter area. In fact, in many preservice programs future elementary teachers do not pursue course work in any of the subject fields beyond the sophomore level. In such instances the student takes two or three courses in each of several fields.

The elementary teacher needs the broad-field type of specialization because of the demands of teaching at this level. In addition, the confidence and intellectual satisfaction that can be derived only from the development of scholarly knowledge in an academic field is essential to complete professional maturity. An understanding of methods of investigation and skills needed for research may be acquired only through specialization in subject fields. As a practical matter, if elementary teachers have achieved

depth in a particular field, they can assist each other with teaching problems. This kind of co-operation is especially useful in the newer types of instructional teams that are being used experimentally in some school systems. The team approach, in fact, forecasts a demand for teachers who are specialists in particular subject fields as well as in the basic skills taught in elementary schools.

STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF SKILL IN TEACHING

Assuming that the teacher has a good liberal education and adequate knowledge of his teaching field, is he prepared to teach? No, he still must know how to teach. The study of educational processes and the development of skill in teaching are the concern of professional education.

What Is Professional Education?

Study of "the art and science of teaching" is commonly referred to today as professional education but such terms lack exactness in meaning. The term *professional education*, for example, has an inaccurate connotation. The implication is that only professors of education prepare the student to teach. Liberal arts professors and various specialists in subject fields play important roles as teacher-educators. Their work, as indicated throughout this chapter, contributes to the professional preparation of teachers. From them, teachers receive their subject matter courses and their preparation in general education. Furthermore, liberal arts professors, by example, teach students their concepts of teaching.

The term *professional education* is used to refer to that part of the college curriculum that is designed specifically for those who share the occupational goal of teaching in elementary and secondary schools. More specifically it refers to the courses labeled "education" in most institutions whose objective is to provide the student professional orientation and training. The distinction between professional education as used here and liberal studies and specialized subjects should be clear. Typical liberal arts courses will enroll students with varied and diverse occupational goals. For example, a physics class may include future research physicists, college teachers, high school and elementary teachers, physi-

cians, housewives, and chemists. Likewise, those who are majoring in a given field will differ considerably in occupational aspirations. English majors, for example, may include those who aspire to be college teachers, high school and elementary teachers, novelists, newspaper reporters, editors, playwrights, housewives, physicians, and lawyers. In professional education courses, on the other hand, one may expect to find only those who share the occupational goal of a career in education.

Professional education consists of knowledge of education as a process, and skill in the art of teaching. Obtaining knowledge of education as a process requires study of such areas as history of education, philosophy of education, learning, human development, the organization and function of the school system, and the roles as well as responsibilities of teachers as members of a profession.

Skill in the art of teaching requires knowledge of the methods and materials necessary to teach a given grade level or subject as well as ability to instruct. Frequently prospective teachers are provided laboratory experiences, prior to student teaching, which permit them to observe and analyze the work of schools and the learning of boys and girls and perhaps to serve as assistant teachers. These may be related to, or required in, other education courses, or they may be organized separately or required as independent participation by students. Student teaching, the formal course in which supervised practice is provided, is usually scheduled in the senior year. This latter course is persistently rated by experienced teachers as the most valuable preparation for teaching of all college courses.

Do Future Teachers Need to Study Professional Education?

Over the years empirical evidence and research findings in the field of education have accumulated. Significant research has been carried out in such areas as the learning process, individual differences, child development, instruction, audio-visual aids, evaluation of pupil progress, curriculum, and the objectives of various school subjects. Consequently, today a substantial body of specialized knowledge, skills, and techniques is available to reinforce the professional strength of the teacher.

Could not the specialized knowledge and skills needed by the teacher be learned best on the job? One might also ask, could not the specialized knowledge and skill of the physician be learned best on the job? The answer to both questions is no, obviously. Such learning is too expensive and time-consuming and represents too great a danger to clients. Children suffer at the hands of the unprepared teacher who is "learning on the job" just as patients would under trial-and-error learning by the physician. For both the teacher and the physician the slow, unguided accumulation of experience on the job is an unreliable and unsatisfactory means of professional preparation when needed knowledge and skill can be acquired in a disciplined way through specialized formal education.

No less an authority than Alfred North Whitehead, a trained mathematician who became a professor of philosophy of education, attests to the need for formal study of professional education. He notes that:¹³ "We are only just realizing that the art and science of education require a study and genius of their own; and that this genius and this science are more than a bare knowledge of some branch of science or of literature."

Rigorous and disciplined study of professional education is essential for the prospective teacher. The trilogy of liberal education, specialized subject matter, and professional education has endured because it is a sound approach to the preparation of teachers.

Criticisms of Professional Education

Two major criticisms are often made of courses in education: first, courses in professional education deal with untested and contradictory theories, and second, there is too much overlapping and duplication of material; courses are not discretely organized. Sometimes the teaching is also criticized as poor, uninspiring, superficial, and dogmatic.

Another type of criticism of professional education courses is sometimes heard. Some students complain that too much work is required, standards of the course are too high, too much reading is required, students are expected to do too much thinking, and

¹³ Alfred North Whitehead, *The Aims of Education* (New York: Mentor Books, 1949), p. 16.

students are expected to do too much independent work. Chances are that the courses that draw such criticisms are providing serious and able students with outstanding learning experiences.

Some of the negative criticism of courses in professional education are justified in certain situations. Proliferation of courses is a serious problem—in all fields of higher education. Some classes are monotonous and uninspiring. Meaningless verbalizations do characterize some and are an ever present danger in all courses because students have had so little experience with the ideas and concepts dealt with in professional education. Students have too little opportunity to gain firsthand professionally-oriented experience with children and youth; they therefore have little opportunity to test and apply theory in practical situations.

From the point of view of the conscientious student who does not expect to be "spoon-fed," no course will be a waste of time. He will see to it that it isn't. He will bring a positive attitude to class and will recognize that he will receive from any course no more than he contributes. Furthermore, the thinking student will not stereotype any field. He knows there are good and poor courses, good and poor teaching in all fields. The real student takes a responsibility, along with the instructor, for making any course a success.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

The various states have established procedures intended to provide citizens with legal protection from exploitation or malpractice on the part of members of various occupational groups. These procedures are in the form of laws which specify minimum requirements for the practice of professions. In order to practice, teachers, lawyers, physicians, pharmacists, and others must hold valid certificates or licenses issued by legal bodies. The regulations governing types of certificates issued to teachers and the qualifications needed for each type and the procedures for renewal or revocation of teaching certificates are controlled by statutory law or state educational authority in every state.

Teacher certification regulations and practices are important for several reasons. Minimum qualifications for teachers prescribed in certification regulations, in effect, establish professional standards. Renewal provisions can encourage the professional

growth and development of teachers in service. Revocation provisions can contribute to the adoption and enforcement of professional ethics. Qualified teachers are protected to some extent from incompetent, unqualified or unethical would-be teachers.

Certification regulations and practices in the various states indicate the educational goals of each. To some extent, they also reflect the educational status of a state. For example, if a state requires a minimum of five years of college for a teaching certificate, it is probable that the people of the state place a high value on education and are willing to provide better-than-average financial support for their schools. In other words, the certification requirements constitute one index of the desire of people in a state to purchase quality education. In states that require only two or three years of college for certification of teachers, the quality of education and the status of teachers are likely to be low. In view of such considerations, the prospective teacher should study the requirements for certification, particularly in states in which practice may be anticipated. While space does not permit detailed descriptions of certification requirements in the various states, Table 12 contains a summary of minimum requirements for regular elementary and secondary teaching certificates. Certification data are published periodically and in some detail by W. Earl Armstrong and T. M. Stinnett under the title *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States* (National Education Association).

Many states maintain detailed requirements for a certificate in addition to those summarized here. The number of semester hours needed to teach an academic subject varies with the fields as well as the state. Some states require a specific pattern of professional education and/or general education courses.

Nation-wide efforts are under way to improve teacher education.¹⁴ They aim essentially toward making certification regulations and practices more useful aids to school systems in their efforts to achieve the highest possible level of personal and professional competency and service from each teacher. To accomplish this objective it is necessary that certification regulations

¹⁴ The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association and T.E.P.S. commissions in the various states are giving effective and co-ordinated leadership in the field of teacher education.

TABLE 12

**MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS FOR LOWEST REGULAR
TEACHING CERTIFICATES FOR PREPARING
TEACHERS AS OF SEPTEMBER 1, 1960**

State	Elementary School			High School		
	Degree or Number of Semester Hours Required	Pro-fessional Education Required, Semester Hours (Total)	Directed Teaching Required, Semester Hours (Included in Column 3)	Degree or Number of College Years Required	Pro-fessional Education Required, Semester Hours (Total)	Directed Teaching Required, Semester Hours (Included in Column 6)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alabama	B	30	3	B	24	3
Alaska	90	16	4	B	16	4
Arizona	B ^b	16	6	B ^a , B ^b	18	6
Arkansas	B	12	3	B	12	3
California	B	24	6	B ^a	22	6
Colorado	60	20	4	B	20	4
Connecticut	B	30	6	B	16	6
Delaware	B	30	6	B	16	6
Florida	B	20	6	B	20	6
Georgia	B	16	6	B	16	6
Hawaii	B	18	D	B	16	D
Idaho	B	20	6	B	20	6
Illinois	B	18	5	B	16	5
Indiana	B	30	6	B	16	5
Iowa	B	20	5	B	20	5
Kansas	B	24	5	B	20	5
Kentucky	B	24	8	B	17	6
Louisiana	B ^b	24	4	B ^b	18	4
Maine	96	D	D	B	12	6
Maryland	B	32	6	B	10	3
Massachusetts	B	16	2	B	12	2
Michigan	B	26	5	B	20	5
Minnesota	B	30	6	B	18	4
Mississippi	B	30	6	B	16	6
Missouri	64	5	6	B	18	5
Montana	64	D	D	B	D	D
Nebraska	40	8	3	B	16	3
Nevada	B ^b	30	4	B ^b	18	4
New Hampshire	B	D	6	B	21	6
New Jersey	B	30	6	B	18	6
New Mexico	B	24	6	B	18	6
New York	B	30	12	B ^b	18	6

TABLE 12 Continued

State	Elementary School			High School		
	Degree or Number of Semester Hours Required	Pro-fessional Education Required, Semester Hours (Total)	Directed Teaching Required, Semester Hours (Included in Column 3)	Degree or Number of College Years Required	Pro-fessional Education Required, Semester Hours (Total)	Directed Teaching Required, Semester Hours (Included in Column 6)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
North Carolina	B	18	3	B	18	3
North Dakota	32	18	3	B	18	3
Ohio	B	28	8	B	17	8
Oklahoma	B ^a	21	8	B ^a	21	8
Oregon	B	20	4	B	24	8
Pennsylvania	B	18	8	B	18	8
Rhode Island	B	30	8	B	18	8
South Carolina	B	21	8	B	18	8
South Dakota	60	15	3	B	20	5
Tennessee	B	24	4	B	24	4
Texas	B ^a	24	8	B ^a	24	8
Utah	B	30	8	B	22	8
Vermont	B	18	8	B	18	8
Virginia	B	18	8	B	15	4-8
Washington	B ^a	27	10	B ^a	27	10
West Virginia	B	20	5	B	20	5
Wisconsin	B	20	8	B ^a	18	5
Wyoming	B ^a	20	C	B ^a	20	C

SOURCE: Adapted from T. M. Stinnett, "Certification Requirements and Procedures among the States in 1960," *The Journal of Teacher Education* (June 1960), pp. 183-184.

B means bachelor's degree of specified preparation; B^a means bachelor's degree plus 5th year, but not necessarily completion of master's degree; C means a course; B^a means a special course that is available usually in the state only; D means approved curriculum.

recognize various levels of teacher competence. For example, perhaps three different certificates may some day be issued: probationary, professional, and career-teacher. The probationary certificate would be issued to all beginning teachers. To qualify for a professional certificate, the teacher would have to present satisfactory evidence of personal and professional growth since beginning his career as a teacher and show promise of capacity for future improvement. The career-teacher certificate would be re-

served for those who demonstrated unusual creativity and competence as a professional person.

A central purpose of certification is to improve the practitioners of a profession. To achieve this purpose in the field of education, certification regulations must contain qualitative controls and differentiate between teachers on the basis of experience, training, and competence.

SUMMARY

Preparation for teaching is actually begun when a person decides to be a teacher. From the time such a decision is reached, a person relates courses and educational experiences to his occupational aspirations.

The preservice preparation of teachers rests upon the trilogy of liberal education, specialized subject matter, and professional education. These areas are interdependent. Each is necessary for proper education of the teacher.

Faculty members from the three areas of the trilogy do not always agree upon the amount of time to be devoted by prospective teachers to each area. As a consequence, what is often referred to as the liberal arts-education controversy, has developed. The schism, real or imagined, between faculties of liberal arts and professional education, with its genesis in the general rejection of all professional work by liberal arts colleges, developed many years ago. In recent years, however, progress had been made toward the development of co-operative working relationships between all who are responsible for the education of teachers.

The differentiation of teacher education into the trilogy of liberal arts, subject matter specialization, and professional education is artificial and fraught with some undesirable consequences. Liberal studies, the central core of the program, are what is normally thought of as offerings of the college of arts and sciences. The aim of liberal education is to produce men and women of integrity with disciplined intelligence and who possess knowledge of self and culture and have a system of values worthy of citizens in a free society.

The successful teacher must have reserves of learning far in excess of any demands placed upon him in regular classroom teaching. Such reserves of learning are built up by specializing in the

subject to be taught. The need for specialization in subject matter applies to both high school and elementary school teachers. The real objective of specialization is depth of understanding and insight in the subjects taught to complement and supplement the broad liberal education of the teacher.

Professional education or "the art and science of teaching" completes the trilogy in teacher education. Professional education means the part of the curriculum which is so specialized that only those who are preparing for a career in education will ordinarily be enrolled.

Certification regulations, based upon preservice programs for teachers, specify minimum requirements for entry into the profession. Requirements for teaching certificates are determined by each state legislature. Consequently, requirements vary considerably from state to state. Prospective teachers should study the certification requirements in the various states to get some indication of the educational goals and the quality of education in each state.

Teacher certification needs to be improved by including qualitative controls in requirements. Certificates are issued now on the basis of semester hours of credit in specific, discrete courses. Those responsible for the education of teachers should work together to devise more adequate certification regulations.

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PART THREE

**THE WORK OF
THE TEACHER**

served for those who demonstrated unusual creativity and competence as a professional person.

A central purpose of certification is to improve the practitioners of a profession. To achieve this purpose in the field of education, certification regulations must contain qualitative controls and differentiate between teachers on the basis of experience, training, and competence.

SUMMARY

Preparation for teaching is actually begun when a person decides to be a teacher. From the time such a decision is reached, a person relates courses and educational experiences to his occupational aspirations.

The preservice preparation of teachers rests upon the trilogy of liberal education, specialized subject matter, and professional education. These areas are interdependent. Each is necessary for proper education of the teacher.

Faculty members from the three areas of the trilogy do not always agree upon the amount of time to be devoted by prospective teachers to each area. As a consequence, what is often referred to as the liberal arts-education controversy, has developed. The schism, real or imagined, between faculties of liberal arts and professional education, with its genesis in the general rejection of all professional work by liberal arts colleges, developed many years ago. In recent years, however, progress had been made toward the development of co-operative working relationships between all who are responsible for the education of teachers.

The differentiation of teacher education into the trilogy of liberal arts, subject matter specialization, and professional education is artificial and fraught with some undesirable consequences. Liberal studies, the central core of the program, are what is normally thought of as offerings of the college of arts and sciences. The aim of liberal education is to produce men and women of integrity with disciplined intelligence and who possess knowledge of self and culture and have a system of values worthy of citizens in a free society.

The successful teacher must have reserves of learning far in excess of any demands placed upon him in regular classroom teaching. Such reserves of learning are built up by specializing in the

subject to be taught. The need for specialization in subject matter applies to both high school and elementary school teachers. The real objective of specialization is depth of understanding and insight in the subjects taught to complement and supplement the broad liberal education of the teacher.

Professional education or "the art and science of teaching" completes the trilogy in teacher education. Professional education means the part of the curriculum which is so specialized that only those who are preparing for a career in education will ordinarily be enrolled.

Certification regulations, based upon preservice programs for teachers, specify minimum requirements for entry into the profession. Requirements for teaching certificates are determined by each state legislature. Consequently, requirements vary considerably from state to state. Prospective teachers should study the certification requirements in the various states to get some indication of the educational goals and the quality of education in each state.

Teacher certification needs to be improved by including qualitative controls in requirements. Certificates are issued now on the basis of semester hours of credit in specific, discrete courses. Those responsible for the education of teachers should work together to devise more adequate certification regulations.

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PART THREE

**THE WORK OF
THE TEACHER**

THE WORK OF
THE TEACHER

The well-known expression "a school is as good as its teachers" in no way exaggerates the importance of the work of those who teach. Central to the work of the teacher is the promotion of learning. To accomplish this objective, much must be known about pupils, their learning characteristics, differences, needs, and values.

The prospective teacher should also be familiar with the nature of the process of instruction and the types of related assignments that characteristically are expected of members of the profession. It is helpful, in addition, to visualize the different roles that communities assign to teachers.

LEARNERS AND LEARNING

The focus of the schools is on the learner as well as on the organization of knowledge and the processes by which learning is facilitated. Teachers must be thoroughly familiar with these three components of education—learners, curriculum, and instruction. Understanding learners—and how they respond as individuals and in groups—and insight into how learning takes place are paramount to successful teaching.

Characteristics of Learners: Essential Professional Knowledge of Teachers

Without knowledge of learners, their differences, similarities, stages of growth, needs, interests, and values, teaching is substantially a trial-and-error process. For this reason, the professional preparation for teaching emphasizes the study of human development and the techniques by which teachers may observe, measure, analyze and appraise the characteristics of both individual children and groups.

Study of individual pupils. Throughout the program of professional preparation, the teacher's study of individual pupils centers, first, upon general features of development that characterize the various growth stages through which children pass, and, second, on the individual deviations or differences that are found to exist. Because of the complexity of individuality and the uniqueness of human personality, the impossibility of providing absolute guides and descriptions that may be applied to all boys and girls can readily be understood. This condition, however, is often frustrating to the beginner who, quite understandably, is eager to discover definite, dependable knowledge that will be certain to fit the children he expects to teach. It is a fundamental task of the professional education of the teacher to help him to realize that each pupil, although like his classmates in many respects, actually is unique and requires individual study, diagnosis, and treatment.

Those who seek definitive answers to questions about human growth and development should reflect upon the writings of such authorities as Stanley M. Garn. In a discussion of efforts of scholars to learn more about physical growth, Garn said: "Quite often a major aim of growth research is to provide norms, standards, charts, and techniques for appraising the adequacy of growth."¹ One difficulty with such mechanical charts and norms is that they soon become obsolete. The Bowditch and the Baldwin-Wood tables are good examples. As Garn noted: "Since today's norms will be obsolete a decade hence, since they will be uniformly too small like last-year's jeans, is average size-for-age really an indication of the adequacy of growth of a particular child?"

Teachers who are aware of the limitations of norms and standards, and who make judicious use of them find them to be of value. Research on the development of children and adolescent youth is producing fairly reliable information concerning *patterns* through which maturation is achieved.² It is possible to describe

¹ Stanley M. Garn, "Growth and Development," in Eli Ginzberg, ed., *The Nation's Children*, Vol. 2, *Development and Education*, White House Conference on Children and Youth (New York: Columbia University Press, 1960), p. 29.

² A. Gesell and Catherine S. Armatrude, *Developmental Diagnosis: Normal and Abnormal Child Development*, 2nd ed. (New York: Hoeber, 1947); Arnold Gesell and others, *Youth: The Years from Ten to Sixteen* (New York: Harper & Brothers), 1956; James V. Neel, M.D., "The Genetic Potential," in Ginzberg, ed., *op. cit.*, pp. 1-23.



The teacher among adults. TOP: A teachers' discussion group at North Haven High School, Connecticut. Good teachers continually pool their experiences and knowledge in an effort to help each other (see page 289). (Photo, the Ford Foundation, by William R. Simmons.) ABOVE: Community resources can be used to enrich and improve the educational program of a school (see page 274). In this picture a mother who has lived in Norway and Sweden is describing those countries to a group of sixth graders. This was part of an "International Festival" at the Salem School, Port Washington, N.Y., in which regular teachers, special teachers (music, art, recreation), parents, and students participated.

Modern education demands close co-operation between home and school (see page 294). Here parents are discussing their child's progress with the teacher. (Photo, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana.)

relative height and weight for different ages. To this early effort to identify physical growth relationships has been added the concept of deviation from the norm which permits predictions governed by above- or below-average patterns of individual characteristics, each normal for particular individuals.³ Physical growth characteristics include, in addition to height and weight, such traits as bone structure, muscle development, function of vital organs of the body, strength, endurance, agility, and energy. Other types of personal factors which are being studied and plotted include intellectual capacities, emotional development, interest patterns, social adjustment, and behavioral responses.

Individuals differ in size, temperament, mental age, achievement, social adjustment, emotional responses, intellectual capacities, and interests. In fact, they deviate from the norm itself, and from the range or expected pattern, in so many respects that it is imperative for teachers to know both ranges and peculiarities of traits that have been found in individuals and groups.

Although the existence of individual differences has long been known, only in recent years have they been recognized as vital factors in the process of education. Formerly, schools were organized, and instruction was provided, as though all students of a given age were more-or-less identical in maturity, ability, interests, responsiveness, and motivation. Every prospective teacher will no doubt have had some acquaintance with instruction of this type.

Fuzzy thinking has led some teachers to contend that equality of opportunity and individual differences make competing and mutually exclusive demands upon the schools. Such a claim is indefensible because both require of each individual his best. This point was made in a lucid fashion by John W. Gardner: ⁴

In education, for example, if we ignore individual differences we end up treating everyone alike—and one result is that we do not demand enough of our ablest youngsters. That is precisely the error we have made in recent decades. But if we toughen up the program and still ignore individual differences we only do an injustice to the average

³ Each prospective teacher should review Dr. Norman C. Wetzel's *Grid for Evaluating Physical Fitness in Terms of Physique, Developmental Level and Basal Metabolism*. (Cleveland, Ohio: NEA Services, Inc.) See latest edition.

⁴ John W. Gardner, "Excellence and Equality," in Ginzberg, ed., *op. cit.*, p. 230.

youngster who will have to drop by the wayside. The only solution is to admit that individuals differ and provide different treatment for different levels of ability. And never forget that we must do a good job at every level of ability. Our kind of society calls for the maximum development of individual potentialities at all levels.

The sensitive and professionally prepared teacher will be able to identify differences in pupils by observation and the use of a variety of measuring devices, the administration and interpretation of which may require the assistance of medical and educational experts. Differences that are apparent include such traits as physical size, sex, color, general vitality, emotional tone, and social poise. Examples of those which require the use of measuring instruments are: health characteristics, intellectual aptitude, educational achievement, and mental adjustment. Knowledge about pupil attitudes and interests is often extended by the use of specially designed inventories.

To illustrate the extent to which pupils differ in one respect that is basic to the work of the teacher, the range of intelligence quotients, IQ's, found by Terman and Merrill for a representative group of children is presented in Table 13. Some authorities say the IQ represents a measure of capacity to learn.⁵ Theoretically,

TABLE 13

**IQ'S AND ACCOMPANYING PERCENTAGES IN A
GOOD SAMPLE OF PEOPLE AGES 2 THROUGH 18**

IQ	Per Cent of Children in Sample
140-169	1.33
120-139	11.30
110-119	18.10
90-109	46.50
80-89	14.50
70-79	5.60
30-69	2.63

SOURCE: L. M. Terman and Maude A. Merrill, *Measuring Intelligence* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937).

⁵ According to A. Montague, *Statement on Race*, UNESCO (Schuman, 1951), "IQ tests" do not differentiate between innate capacity and environment, training, and education.

an individual's IQ does not change throughout life, except as modifications occur as a result of deficiencies in measuring devices or when such factors as health or environment modify an individual response. The average intelligence quotient, as will be noted from the distribution in Table 13, is supposed to be 100. The range shown in this sample is fairly typical, although Terman reported scores of gifted students he studied as high as 185. Despite the fact that these scores are for children of various ages, a similar pattern would prevail for pupils of a given grade in school, of the same chronological age, provided that the number was sufficiently great, and except for the fact that some of those in the lowest category, 30-69, would be institutionalized and never reach first grade.

Similar information on differences in abilities, capacities, and other traits will form an important part of the content of the professional courses in human development and psychology of learning that the prospective teacher will study. Courses in the organization of the school system as well as those dealing with methods and materials of instruction and student teaching will be concerned with adapting the program of the school to differences that prevail.

Needs and interests of children and youth. While young people differ with respect to various traits, patterns of development, and capacities, they possess many common characteristics. Were it not for this fact, group instruction in school would be difficult if not impossible.

Children and youth have common requirements, which sociologists and educators call "needs," and similar interests that are dictated both by their environment and their natural inclinations. Needs have been classified as physical, mental, social, and emotional. All pupils, for example, have the physical need for food, clothing, shelter, and good health; intellectually, they must learn to use a language, read and write, gather and interpret information, solve problems, and use the accumulated wisdom of their culture. Social requirements of pupils include the necessity of living in a society, self-discipline, and co-operation. Common emotional needs are thought to be affection, recognition, a sense of security, and reasonable self-assurance.

Values of pupils. Each learner has a system of values. He first enters school with the value patterns that have been taught him by his parents, church, and neighborhood. In school, the values and cultural standards of fellow students, and of the teacher, become important. Conflicts sometimes prevail between the two influences on pupils, those in and out of school. Also, as a child matures, he may find his natural desire to develop his own value system thwarted by parental or other adult reluctance for their imposed standards to be modified.

The teacher has an opportunity to help children and young people to clarify their values and to resolve conflicts they experience. Such a responsibility requires a thorough understanding of the nature of values, their characteristics at various levels of pupil maturity, and their impact on learning.

Group factors. Not only must the teacher know the general characteristics of maturity levels, longitudinal patterns of development, and individual differences; he must also recognize and understand the impact of the group in which learning takes place. Pupils in school are influenced by such group factors as the morale that prevails, the goals endorsed, and the behavior applauded as well as by the crosscurrents of acceptance and rejection by and of individual members. To attempt to understand a child without insights into the group forces that impinge upon his adjustment and behavior, as well as his learning, is an invitation to error. In school, as out, the individual maintains relationships to his peers that must be taken into account when learning is under way.

Recent developments in the pedagogical phase of teacher education have emphasized the role of the group in shaping characteristics of individual learners. Techniques for studying group composition, internal patterns of association, and leadership are being refined. The field of sociology has contributed various sociometric devices that are useful in discovering the composite personality of given groups. By use of the sociogram, for instance, a teacher may discover how a pupil feels toward his associates and their attitudes toward him. Leaders, recognized by students, can be identified. Pressures may be uncovered. Such information is invaluable as an aid both to helping individuals and planning suitable learning experiences for the total class.

The Study of Learners

Professional competence in identifying individual differences requires expertness by teachers in such procedures as observation of pupil behavior, measurement of traits, and analysis of information pertinent to stages of growth and individual adjustment. Such skills cannot be learned entirely from books; they require laboratory practice under expert supervision. For this reason, the preparation of teachers typically includes opportunities for the study of children and youth in both school and community situations. The object is to furnish firsthand examples for observation which illustrate the facts and principles to be learned. The trend in programs of teacher education is to increase the amount of laboratory work so that theory and results from research may be tested or observed in operation at each stage of the prospective teacher's professional orientation. Such study of learners is usually organized as a part of the requirements of education courses which the student takes prior to student teaching. Some institutions now arrange for class situations or observations of individual pupils to be televised via closed circuit to large groups of prospective teachers, thus providing identical laboratory situations for exercises in analysis.

Like the study of medicine, preparation for teaching will provide few ironclad formulas for diagnosis and treatment of particular clients. Even when fairly specific knowledge of cause and effect is available, individuals differ so greatly that the practitioner must expertly ascertain the pertinent characteristics for a particular case. Only then will he be able to apply his total professional knowledge so as to insure accurate diagnosis from which treatment may be prescribed or administered. Such professional discipline requires sustained, objective study, and practice. Essentially, it is the mark of the professional teacher.

The Learning Process

Basic to effective teaching is the application of sound principles of learning. With this premise, everyone agrees; but as yet there has been no general acceptance of a complete theory of learning. Nor do scholars concur on the relationship that should prevail between learning and teaching. It was George Bernard Shaw who

observed: "If you teach a man anything, he will never learn." Implied is the basic premise that learning is something a person does for himself; it is not done for him. Yet the schools exist because of the belief that teachers promote learning by teaching.

Research on learning has been concerned with such problems as what learning is, what happens when learning takes place, what conditions motivate or inhibit learning, the nature of transfer, values, and the retention and differences in types of learning.

Definitions of learning range from the philosophical characterization by John Dewey, that learning is the reconstruction of experience, to the belief that learning is a more prosaic act of acquiring habits and knowledge. In various ways learning has been conceived as both a process and an outcome, as growth itself, or as adjustment to environmental forces. Some simply say that learning is a change in behavior. Regardless of the definition favored, most authorities recognize that experience and behavior are involved and that learning itself is highly personalized.

Most scholars of human learning, in the absence of verified theory, take an eclectic position regarding process and aspects of learning. Perhaps failure to devise a universal theory of learning is due to the dearth of research in the field of human learning. Most of the experiments have been concerned with the learning of lower animals, of rats and apes, for example. It is attributable, also, to the fact that research in this field has been relatively limited as compared to some of the areas of medical science, for example.

Yet, despite lack of complete agreement about what learning is and how it takes place, the prospective teacher will be introduced to exciting and highly useful hypotheses which offer operating principles with which the practice of teaching can go forward. He will find also a challenge to join the search for truth about learning and its relationship to the process of teaching. For the college student who is looking for absolutes, of course, the study of human learning will prove frustrating and theoretical. But here again, the function of professional education must be to inspire the prospective teacher to shun the ranks of the cynical critics who respect only established fields and to join the highly stimulating intellectual venture of helping to test theory by systematic practice. A person so positively motivated will find en-

joyment, satisfaction, and worthwhile knowledge essential to his profession in the study of what is known and what is yet to be discovered about the mysteries of the human mind and how it works.

TEACHING AND RELATED RESPONSIBILITIES

What do teachers actually do? If one chooses to teach, how varied and interesting will his professional responsibilities be? Why is it claimed that the work of the teacher is becoming increasingly complex? These and other questions deserve honest answers if one's commitment to preparation for teaching is to be sincere and dependable.

Essentially, the work of the teacher is of three types: (1) teaching, (2) performing tasks related to instruction as well as the general work of the school, and (3) carrying out professional activities. The emphasis given to each depends upon the interests and qualifications of the individual as well as on the requirements prevailing in a given subject field or school.

Teaching

To the uninitiated, teaching may seem to be only presiding over the work of pupils while they are in class; actually, much behind-the-scenes effort is required for each class period taught. The teaching aspect of what goes on in a classroom is comparable to what happens on the stage of a theatrical production. What the pupils experience is the culmination of hours of intensive study, planning, organizing of materials, selection of particular procedures, and charting the direction and pace of the class learning activities.⁶ Specific aspects of the total process of teaching include selection and development of instructional units, planning individual lessons, organizing materials for instruction, designing the method to be used, classroom management, the evaluation of pupil achievement, and the reporting of progress.

Selection and development of instructional units. Even though the curriculum of the school is firmly established, as it usually is for all first-year teachers, numerous decisions have to be made relative to the particular units to be taught and their order and organization. In the past 20 years the unit approach to teaching

⁶ For a good discussion of teaching methods see George A. Beauchamp, *Basic Dimensions of Elementary Method* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1959).

has become widespread in both elementary and secondary divisions. Thus, in spite of the fact that textbooks may already have been chosen, the teacher has the responsibility of designing from the text, resource books, and other materials the manner in which the unit will be presented. In some situations, provisions for optional units necessitate choices by teachers which often are influenced by the characteristics of particular groups of children to be taught.

The development of an instructional unit requires such steps as: definition of objectives, outlining of topics, choice of materials; ordering of supplies; identification of resources, human and material, verbal and pictorial, in school and out, that may be useful; visualizing possible learning activities; selection and development of evaluation procedures and instruments; and the assembling of plans into a syllabus which in pedagogical terms is called a "resource unit." All this work must take place prior to classroom teaching. The burden on the first-year teacher is obvious since he will have no carry-over units for use. The experienced teacher will typically reorganize units each year or develop new ones to take the place of those that do not fit a new class group.

Planning individual lessons. From the resource unit, individual lessons must be planned. Usually these may cover one or more days of class work. This phase of teaching requires close attention to the characteristics of individual pupils as well as to the background of the entire class. It must be designed to capture and hold attention and to help each child make maximum use of class and study time.

A common pattern for lesson plans provides for a formal presentation by the teacher to introduce the material or learning activity followed by a period of pupil study. The third stage involves some form of group treatment of the subject matter by pupils and the teacher, such as recitation, group discussion, black-board work, reports by members of the class, or interviews with committees or resource persons. The final aspects of the lesson involves the appraisal of progress or achievement and remedial work to eliminate learning inadequacies.

Organizing material for instruction. In good schools, the classroom has been converted into a learning laboratory with an abundance of visual, auditory, and electronic resources as well

as various types of printed material to facilitate study and teaching. Pictures, maps, charts, graphs, films, mock-ups, records, tape recording equipment, teaching machines, laboratory materials, newspaper and magazine stories, references—all must be assembled to make possible maximum learning.

Teachers' summer months often are devoted to finding and organizing materials needed for teaching. During the school year, the provision of particular resources for given phases of instruction is a continuing task. With the increase in audio-visual materials being made available to teachers, including radio and television presentations to supplement the classroom work and teaching machines which permit individual self-instruction,¹ teachers will expect to devote even greater attention to this aspect of their professional assignments.

Designing methods. A book by V. T. Thayer entitled, *The Passing of the Recitation*, written in 1929, forecast the end of centuries of complete dependence on teacher-directed recitations as the single or major method of instruction in elementary and secondary schools. For the process of instruction itself, the well-prepared teacher today can select from a variety of methods including laboratory procedures, group discussion, dramatizations, independent and team study, teacher-student planning, film presentations, student presentation of results of independent research, and teacher story telling, explanation, demonstration, Socratic questioning, interviews of resource persons, lectures, and other types of activities. Less emphasis is placed in democratic schools on methods of teaching that place the teacher in the center of the stage; instead, pupil-centered or co-operative group procedures are used to involve students more in their own learning and encourage initiative, self-direction, and teamwork as well as self-evaluation.

Yet, with all the variety of instructional procedures that have been tested and made available, the good teacher rarely depends exclusively upon any one of them. Quality instruction requires the selection and adaptation of methods to fit particular goals in

¹ "Tutor," the first teaching machine to become commercially available, was invented by psychologist Norman A. Crowder and placed on the market in 1959. For an interesting discussion of new media see Chester D. Babcock, "The Teacher, TV, and Teaching Machines," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 5 (May, 1960), pp. 30-31.

teaching and the uniqueness of given groups of pupils. More often than not, the teacher designs his own method, for teaching is an art, as well as a science, that calls for maximum use of imagination, creativity and professional skill. For this reason, the teacher is ever involved in developing methods to fit his instructional plans and appraising the effectiveness of his creations. To aid in this endeavor, he will, of course, attempt to keep well informed about progress and research in the field of methods.

Classroom management. This is the phase of teaching the college student will most likely visualize when he thinks of becoming a teacher. It is the stage presentation of the entire instructional process. In it the teacher plays a leading role and manages the production at the same time. Action, drama, intellectual stimulation, tensions, and emotional responses may characterize its daily enactment. It is in this aspect of teaching that the professional person may achieve the heights of excitement and satisfaction as he experiences the unmatched thrill of communicating a complex idea to an eager mind or of observing a child win a battle with his emotions or conquer a deficiency in skill or knowledge. On the other hand, discouragement and disappointment may be daily companions as the teacher engages in classroom management.

The untrained observer will miss many of the supporting roles and less obvious processes that take place while a good teacher is in charge of the class. Discipline, for example, the Achilles heel of many beginning teachers, may be handled so subtly by an experienced teacher that no apparent problems ever develop. In truth, such a teacher has learned to create a climate of interest and activity that deters pupil maladjustment; he also has become an expert at sensing a trend in pupil response before it happens so that positive counteractive steps can be taken before negative, punitive action is necessary. Classroom routines such as checking attendance, making assignments, passing out materials, collecting papers, and arranging for group work are all easily recognized. Less obvious, however, will be steps taken by the teacher to develop and maintain high-quality group rapport, to help individual pupils find release from tensions that inhibit learning, and to guide the intellectual applications of boys and girls to benchmarks never before attained.

The prospective teacher who catches the spirit of excitement

that is involved in classroom management will look to opportunities to observe teaching in schools with eager anticipation. He will sense that systematic study of teachers, with expert guidance, is the major avenue to understanding the full ramifications and complexities of classroom management.

Evaluation of pupil achievement and reporting pupil progress. The dual goals of evaluation include the ascertaining of the degree to which over-all educational objectives are achieved and the analysis of strengths and weaknesses for the purpose of enhancing achievement by each student. The former goal is a teacher purpose while the latter is a learning experience for the student. It follows that in most instances effective evaluation procedures involve both the teacher and pupil.

Reporting of progress may be an administrative device to record and communicate pupil attainment. Essentially, the quality of reporting depends upon the professional competence of the teacher to measure accurately as well as to appraise precisely and objectively the growth in skills, knowledges, understandings, attitudes, and behavior of individual pupils. Evaluation and reporting of pupil progress makes rigorous demands upon the teacher for professional knowledge of measurement theory and practice, understanding of individual pupils, insight into the goals of education, and the objectives of the work taught.

Related Responsibilities

The major responsibilities teachers assume apart from the process of classroom instruction include counseling, direction of the extra curricular activities, supervision of pupils in nonclass situations and self-imposed professional study.

Counseling of pupils. Although all but the smallest schools are coming to employ specialists to counsel pupils, classroom teachers are still considered the primary agents for guidance services because of their close acquaintance and daily contact with boys and girls. Often the rapport between a pupil and teacher is such that guidance is a natural aspect of the teaching process itself. In other situations, special administrative arrangements are made to utilize the counseling resources of teachers either with groups or individuals.

The home room is the device most frequently used to provide guidance services to pupils in groups. Some teachers are called upon to serve as home room sponsors. In this capacity they provide information, administer inventories and tests, interpret vocational opportunities and requirements, assist with the planning of high school and college programs, and generally help with the choices that students must make. In some junior and senior high schools home room sponsors continue with the same group of pupils throughout their school membership. Such continuity provides for close acquaintance, a variety of associations, and often promotes warm relationships between pupils and teachers that even surpass those possible in instructional groups.

Teachers typically engage in individual counseling in relation to their fields of specialization, providing occupational information to interested students and helping to plan suitable educational programs leading to career objectives. As is true with respect to home room sponsorship, responsibilities for individual counseling usually follow competence. In a real sense, teacher-counselors are selected by students. Because of this fact, the teacher to whom students turn naturally, and willingly, for help may find it difficult to control the amount of time devoted to this service.

Direction of extracurricular activities. Opportunities to direct student extracurricular activities are open usually to teachers who have special interest and talents, particularly in smaller schools. Such projects may be closely related to the teachers' subject specialization—for example, science club, speech, music, or dramatic activities—or it may be of a recreational or avocational interest in sports, hobby, or social areas. High school teachers typically have more opportunities to direct extracurricular projects than do those in elementary schools because of the characteristics of the age groups involved. The latter, however, find numerous chances to guide children in musical, dramatic, artistic, and hobby activities, either as a related phase of schoolwork or in connection with the presentation of programs to student and parent groups.

Direction of extracurricular activities may provide opportunities for highly effective teaching. Often student motivation and self-discipline are at their highest in these projects. Tensions and anxieties that sometimes develop in class work usually are at a

minimum. Co-operative teacher-student sharing of responsibility can be high. Through this type of leadership teachers find rich and rewarding associations with children and young people. It affords also some of the best opportunities to observe the development and adjustment of boys and girls in informal situations when their true characteristics are most likely to be apparent.

Supervising nonclass situations. Teachers may be called upon to supervise certain nonclass situations such as study halls, lunchrooms, halls and playgrounds, or social events. Some of these routine duties are assigned by rotation, with a teacher having responsibility for monitoring the lunchroom one noon a week, for example. Others, such as an assigned study hall, may involve daily attention. In elementary schools, the teacher typically has full and continuing responsibility for a group of pupils throughout the school day. This often means being with them on the playground and in lunchrooms daily.

One of the reasons why some school systems are currently experimenting with the use of instructional teams is to free classroom teachers from the routine duties involved in supervision of nonclass situations. A capable instructional aid, who may be a young high school graduate or a more mature parent, can relieve the teacher of such time-consuming operations to permit the devotion of his full attention to the important processes involved in teaching.

Professional study. The teacher, because he is a professional person, is obligated to keep abreast of and contribute to developments in his field. This responsibility involves independent scholarship and participation in group study projects to remain up-to-date in one's subject field as well as in knowledge of the processes of education. It means the continuous investigation of unsolved problems to help extend the quality of professional practice of self and others.

Opportunities for research are available to the teacher who recognizes that experimentation is an integral aspect of his professional work. Daily he works in a laboratory in which he may study the characteristics of young people; test the selection, organization, and presentation of content; appraise teaching procedures; validate learning theories; and devise improvements in evaluation instruments.

Professional activities of teachers include participation on school curriculum and course of study committees to plan and determine the scope of the total educational program as well as the work in a subject field. In democratically administered schools, teachers share the responsibility for policy formulation and help in various ways to interpret the program of the schools to the public.

ROLES OF THE TEACHER

To paraphrase an old saying, "the teacher is all things to all pupils." He receives confidences from learners. He is a motivator, a resource person, a disciplinarian, a substitute parent, an adviser, an example, and a judge. Different teachers play these multiple roles with varying degrees of effectiveness. Yet play them they must; pupils and communities impose such expectations on all who accept assignments in teaching.

Confidant

Education is a personal kind of experience that permits teachers to come to know pupils intimately. All who are the least bit approachable find themselves almost inundated with the problems of pupils. In many cases, the teacher is the only adult, except for parents, who is well known to the pupil. At times young people prefer to discuss problems with a teacher rather than with a parent. No other adult will be more trusted.

The role of receiver of confidences requires skill if it is played with effectiveness. In the first place, this assignment sometimes conflicts with other duties the teacher must perform, such as judge and disciplinarian. In the second place the role of confidant may bring the teacher into conflict with the pupils' parents. He may receive vital information that pupils withhold from their parents.

Teachers are sometimes ineffective as confidants. They may be unapproachable, dismiss pupils' problems as unimportant, or give them "the" answer instead of helping the person to find his own answer. The problems of children and youth often look remarkably simple to an adult. But the role of the confidant is to hear the pupil out and assist him in analyzing his own problem and finding his own solution. It is well to remember that the teacher may not see the problem from the student's perspective. Words of wis-

dom, attributed to a Sioux Indian Chief are worth remembering. He said "Great Father, help me never to judge another man until I have walked two weeks in his moccasins."

Motivator

Evidence of the importance communities attach to the teacher's role as "motivator" abound. A recent *Chicago Tribune* newspaper story begins: "Embryonic young scientists clustered before a movie screen in Evanston Township High School yesterday watching the mysteries of physics unfold." A story headline in *The Nation's Schools* reads: "TV and Classroom Teacher Are a Team, Shows Countywide Study in Maryland." The story explains that "the classroom teacher and the television teacher are a team . . . they work together to prepare the materials to be used in their joint handling of lessons." These samples of popular news accounts highlight the motivating influences of teachers. Good teachers try to arouse or enhance the curiosity of pupils; they point to goals, identify strengths and weaknesses, use a variety of approaches, and attempt to involve the learner in planning and evaluating his own learning experiences.

Rarely does one see unmotivated students with a highly motivated teacher. When a teacher is enthusiastic about his subject and enjoys working with pupils, half of the battle of motivation has been won. Enthusiasm is contagious. The behavior of pupils is often a reflection of the attitudes and professional bearing of the teacher. He can motivate pupils to a large extent simply by being a good, enthusiastic learner himself. As Sam Rayburn said recently, "Teachers can inspire their students. . . . They can do it merely by having ambition of their own and imparting this to their students."⁸

Resource Person and Guide to Learning

In the past, a teacher was regarded as a person who "knew it all." This image was often exemplified in the type of authoritarian portrayed in the best-selling novel *Good Morning, Miss Dove*.⁹

Today, the teacher is regarded more as a resource person or

⁸ Sam Rayburn, "A Teacher Who Seized Time by the Forelock," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, no. 3 (March, 1960), p. 25.

⁹ Frances Gray Patton, *Good Morning, Miss Dove* (New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1954).

guide, and less as the "fountainhead of all knowledge." Instead of decreasing the respect of pupils and parents, this more realistic role actually enhances respect for the teacher. No one can know everything. Those who pretend they do are soon discredited. By helping pupils search for answers, instead of "spoon-feeding" them the teacher strengthens them as students.

Fully as important as the teacher's knowledge of a subject in carrying out his role as resource person and guide is his problem-solving ability. He must know the scientific procedures, resources, and their use. These must be applied to the various needs and abilities of individual pupils. A goal of the resource role is to encourage pupils to search for generalizations, concepts, and new insights.

Disciplinarian

Children and youth are usually aware of it when they overstep the bounds of proper and reasonable behavior. Too, they usually expect to be called to task by a responsible adult—their teacher, if the misbehavior occurs in school. Occasionally a teacher, in search of popularity with pupils, makes the mistake of ignoring improper pupil behavior. Firm, fair, and consistent discipline is an absolute must in dealing with pupils. And the objective toward which the teacher should work at all times is self-discipline on the part of each pupil.

Generally, in spite of criticisms to the contrary, teachers do a satisfactory job in the realm of discipline. At least, students think they do. According to a nation-wide survey reported recently by Gilbert Youth Research Company, seven out of ten students participating were satisfied with the state of discipline in their schools.¹⁰ The report pointed out that 19 per cent, however, "A sizable minority holds that there's too much laxness . . ."

The pupils are probably better satisfied with the present state of discipline than are the teachers. From the comments of teachers, a majority apparently feel that discipline is too lax in some schools.

Teachers actually can strengthen disciplinary controls if they care to do so. They have the power, legally and morally, to permit them to do a good job in their roles as disciplinarians.

¹⁰ Eugene Gilbert, "Students Favor Strict Discipline," *Chicago Sun-Times* (November 28, 1957), p. 52.

In Loco Parentis

School laws, court decisions, and custom have conveyed to teachers the role known as *loco parentis*—literally “in place of the parent.” Naturally teachers cannot use this authority in cruel or unusual control or punishment of pupils. However, in most school systems they have the necessary legal power to deal with serious breaches of discipline.

This role has implications more far-reaching than permission to punish. It accords to the teacher parental status in relationship to pupils on the playgrounds and when going on field trips or other types of travel for school purposes. In case of accidents when children are under teacher supervision, the courts have ruled that in the absence of negligence, teachers are not legally liable because of their *loco parentis* status.

Adviser

The advice that teachers must provide runs the gamut from impersonal and academic matters to extremely intimate problems; from frivolous concerns to crucial life decisions.

A word of caution to the prospective teacher is in order. Typically, teachers talk too much. In many cases, a good job of listening on the part of the teacher will cure the problem. In those cases where counseling is called for, the teacher should be careful that he does more than help the pupil solve his immediate problem. The objective of most counseling interviews is to help the pupil develop his own analytical and problem-solving ability. This goal cannot be realized if the teacher provides all the answers. Each time the teacher acts in his adviser role, a pupil should be helped along the way toward mature judgment, self-discipline, and the ability to deal intelligently with his problems.

Example

The teacher is a model at all times, or rather he is an example. He may or may not be a model, defining the word as a desirable and true pattern to be imitated. But he is an example at all times.

Pupils learn by imitation. They pick up bad habits as quickly as good ones, if the example is of the bad variety. They learn prejudice as quickly as they learn open-mindedness. They learn

to read trashy literature and speak in a slovenly manner as quickly as they learn to appreciate good literature and to speak correct English. The responsibility for being a good example, a model, for pupils is an important one. It helps to keep the teacher conscious of his own behavior and its impact upon children and youth.

Judge

Finally, the teacher functions in the role of a judge. He judges pupils' behavior, their work, their capabilities and their attitudes. In this role, the teacher rewards, punishes, and exerts strong influence over the behavior of pupils.

The teacher should remain acutely conscious of the fact that he plays the role of judge. It is easy to forget. Pupils have limited control over their academic status; when judged by the teacher, they have practically no recourse. Under such circumstances it is easy for the teacher to come to look upon his judgments as infallible. This assumption is a dangerous occupational disease. It is avoided by constantly reminding oneself to see if all the facts are in, to hear and weigh all the evidence, to seek help from associates when needed, and to be at all times a big enough person to revise one's judgments.

The foregoing roles are important parts of the teacher's work with children and youth. None is discrete. Each impinges upon the others. All help to determine the success or failure of the teacher.

SUMMARY

Central to the work of the teacher is the promotion of learning. To accomplish this objective the characteristics of learners must be known. Knowledge of the general features of human development, horizontal and longitudinal, and of variations in traits, needs, interests, and values of pupils is essential for professional competence. In addition, the teacher must understand the impact of the group on individuals and the general facts as well as hypotheses about the process of learning itself.

Teaching and its related responsibilities involves a variety of tasks, such as the selection and development of instructional units, planning of lessons, organizing materials, and designing methods which take place behind the scenes of classroom management. The evaluation of pupil achievement requires the highest level of

professional knowledge, wisdom, and maturity. Related assignments of teachers include counseling pupils, direction of extra-curricular activities, the supervision of nonclass situations, and one self-imposed obligation—living the life of a professional person.

Pupils and communities impose various roles which teachers are expected to assume. These tend to complicate the teacher's already overcrowded school day. Included are the roles of the confidant, motivator, resource person and guide to learning, disciplinarian, substitute parent, adviser, example, and judge. None of these is discrete; each impinges on the others. Sometimes they conflict. Yet the amount and quality of learning by pupils are affected by the skill and effectiveness with which the teacher plays each role. Yes, the teacher is a person with multiple competencies, and varied assignments; he must be good at them all, for his work is vital to society and civilization.

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THE TEACHER AS A MEMBER OF A PROFESSION

President Theodore Roosevelt is credited with having said, "Every man owes some of his time to the upbuilding of the profession to which he belongs." This advice is particularly appropriate for teachers since improvement of their profession depends largely upon the efforts of those who teach.

To prepare for making maximum contributions to improving their profession, teachers will find it helpful to have an acquaintance with the historical developments of all professions. They will gain as well by learning to recognize and appreciate the distinguishing characteristics of a profession so as to become able to appraise the extent to which teaching has attained such status. Because a profession is characterized by a code of ethics, the prospective teacher needs to become acquainted early with the professional commitments he will be expected to share with his colleagues. It is important, also, that he learn about the various professional organizations that stimulate, organize, and co-ordinate the efforts of teachers to strengthen their profession.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PROFESSIONS

Until the present century, "professional" services were generally rendered by amateurs. Previously, for example, ministers often gave medical advice and treatment. The pulling of teeth was the primary activity of dentists, while barbers performed various types of minor surgery. Teaching was conducted by ministers or unprepared laymen whose classrooms were characterized by daily recitations from content in available textbooks and rote memory exercises. Nursing and social work were carried on by volunteers. The service of physicians and lawyers was on a rather primitive level.

Standards of professional preparation and general education

were extremely low, if in existence at all, until recent years. The practitioner prepared for his profession through the apprenticeship system. As late as 1900, 58 per cent of the law schools required only an elementary school education for admission. In the same year, 62 per cent of the medical schools required only one year of high school. Dental schools did not have a specific entrance requirement. As a rule, teachers in public schools were required to have completed the grade they were to teach.

Professional Specialization and Extended Preparation

Professional specialization demands extended periods of intensive education. By 1930, several major professions—medicine, law, dentistry, theology, and education—were requiring the postponement of technical specialization until a broad foundation of liberal education had been completed. Demands for higher standards for practitioners, accompanied by rapid expansions of pertinent fields of knowledge, added also to the number of years of professional preparation. Four-year medical schools, three-year law schools, two- to four-year schools of theology, all based on three or four years of liberal arts background have tended to establish the basic pattern for professional education in the United States. In most of these fields, specialization is now required beyond the basic preparation necessary for admission to practice. Four additional years of training and supervised practice are coming to be standard for the surgeon; a lawyer may continue his specialization to the master's and doctor's degrees; and a minister may also specialize to the point of winning the doctorate.

The early schoolmaster had broad but relatively superficial preparation by today's standards. Although he was considered to be a man of culture because his training covered such fields as theology, languages, English grammar and literature, history, and mathematics, he actually knew little more than good high school graduates do now. As the profession of elementary and secondary school teaching became specialized, those who prepared to teach were expected to complete the equivalent of four years of college work in the liberal arts, a portion of which is devoted to the beginning of specialization in a teaching field. Continued specialization at the master's degree level and beyond is becoming more

common. A few states already require five years of college study before initial certification. Teachers, like other professional people, are becoming more specialized, and at the same time their programs of preparation are being extended.

Improved Professional Service

The professions are charged with the responsibility to educate, to heal, and to help people. When standards of professional preparation and practice were low, the aim of the professions was simply to help individuals survive; their aim has become more complex and now includes the goal of helping people to live more abundantly. Humanitarian and professional concepts require that practitioners in all fields serve the individual within the context of his total needs—mental, social, physical, spiritual, and emotional. Thus, the physician must understand man as well as medicine.¹ The teacher must know the individual pupil and be familiar with his environment in addition to being a subject matter specialist.

Professions are altruistic. They were established and are supported by society to serve the common good. The improvement of human welfare is the goal society has assigned to all professions. It follows that individuals who enter a profession should be motivated by the high ideal of quality service to their fellow man. Commitment to this ideal requires the practitioner to be ever critical of his profession's rationale and practice, because he is continually seeking to improve service to mankind.

Increase in Number of People Prepared for Professional Fields

The growth of specialization and the increasing complexity of society have increased the demand for men and women in the professional fields. The population of the United States is twice what it was in 1900, but four times as many people are now engaged in professional work. Since 1900, "the number of school-teachers has increased 1¼ times as rapidly as the increase in total population; the number of professional health workers has in-

¹ See Warren R. Young, "You and Your Doctor," *Life* (October 12, 1959), pp. 145-160.

creased $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as rapidly; the number of engineers, 5 times; and the number of scientists, 10 times."² Growth trends of degrees, bachelor's or first professional degree, in selected fields, are indicated by the data in Figure 17 and Table 14.

Since the 1920's more degrees have been granted in education than in any other professional field. The number of degrees in

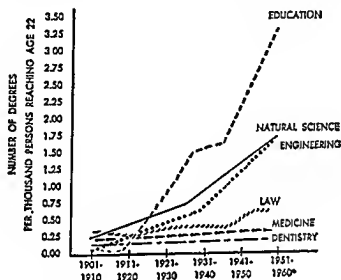


FIGURE 17.

GROWTH TRENDS OF BACHELOR'S AND FIRST PROFESSIONAL DEGREES IN SELECTED FIELDS

* 1951-1960 figures were extrapolated. Data through 1957-1958 available in Harry Hansen, ed., *The World Almanac* (New York: The New York World Telegram and Sun, 1960), p. 494.

Adapted from Dael Wolfe, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954), p. 32.

medicine, dentistry, and law per 1,000 persons reaching age 22 has shown no appreciable increase. In the period from 1901 to 1910, three people out of 1,000 reaching age 22 got a degree in medicine, and the same percentage prevails today.

* Dael Wolfe, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent*, Report of the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954), p. 2.

TABLE 14

**NUMBER OF BACHELOR'S AND FIRST PROFESSIONAL
DEGREES PER 1,000 PERSONS REACHING AGE 22**

Field	1901- 1910	1911- 1920	1921- 1930	1931- 1940	1941- 1950	1951- 1960
Education		1	5	15	17	33
Natural science	3	3	6	7	10	16
Engineering	1	2	4	5	10	16
Law	2	2	4	4	3	5
Medicine	3	2	2	2	3	3
Dentistry	1	1	1	1	1	1

SOURCES: 1901-1950 figures were adapted from Dael Wolfe, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954), p. 31. 1951-1960 figures were extrapolated. Data through 1957-1958 available in Harry Hansen, ed. *The World Almanac* (New York: The New York World Telegram and Sun, 1960), p. 494.

TEACHING IS A PROFESSION

The question of whether teaching is a profession is sometimes argued. Such discussion ignores the fact that teaching has long been recognized as a profession. In fact, it is the oldest type of professional service known to society. Like other professions, of course, teaching falls short of meeting all of the standards that characterize a profession. It, too, counts among its members some individuals who fail to live up to recognized professional standards of conduct and service. These shortcomings, however, cannot change the fact that teaching is by both its function and nature a profession.

A profession has been defined in various ways. An early definition was given by the Supreme Court of the United States when it specified that a profession requires "an equipment of learning or skill, or both," that a person uses in his vocation. Because such a vocation demands that its members render service to others, the Court said the community is warranted in "making restrictions in respect to its exercise."² This definition and others in common usage perhaps cover too many occupational groups. Under it

² *United States v. Laws*, 163 U.S. 258.

plumbers and barbers qualify as professional men. A more reliable approach to identifying a profession is to ascertain whether or not it possesses the characteristics of the universally recognized professions.

Characteristics of a Profession

A comprehensive listing of the attributes which distinguish an occupational group as professional has been attempted by several authorities. The National Education Association suggested eight criteria of a profession.⁴ Two English scholars propose six characteristics in a publication of the British Institute of Management.⁵ By synthesizing these and other lists seven basic characteristics are found to be generally accepted:

1. Service is valued more than personal gain.
2. The public accords professions high status.
3. Practice is based on a body of specialized knowledge.
4. Practice of the profession demands intellectual activity.
5. Standards of professional qualifications for admission are established and maintained by the group.
6. Conduct of members is governed by ethics.
7. A strong professional organization is maintained.

When classifying an occupational group with the foregoing criteria it is necessary to apply the entire list. Some groups have only two or three of the characteristics. All seven characteristics are present only if the occupational group is a profession.

Teaching and the Characteristics of a Profession

Teaching has all the characteristics of a profession. Granted, not all professional standards in the educational field are as high as they need to be; nevertheless worthy teachers are accorded professional status by their colleagues and the public. Good teachers are always interested in improving their profession, and an analysis of strengths and weaknesses of the profession is a suggested starting point.

Service ahead of personal gain. Why do people choose teaching

⁴ National Education Association, "The Yardstick of a Profession," in *Institutes on Professional and Public Relations* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948), p. 8.

⁵ Roy Lewis and Angus Maude, *Professional People in England* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1953), pp. 55-56.

as a career? According to reliable research in the field of education, the most prevalent reason cited by individuals who choose to teach is their interest in and desire to help children and youth.⁶ Others say they teach because they want their life to have meaning, "to count for something." Teachers and prospective teachers expect no great financial rewards, but still they choose to serve society as members of the profession of teaching. Their rewards, intangible as they are for the most part, bring deep satisfactions that cannot be purchased with money. This is because teachers exalt service above personal gain.

High status. Teachers and the profession of teaching enjoy considerable prestige. Results of polls, studies by sociologists, as well as empirical evidence, agree that teachers are accorded high status by the public.⁷ In the Roper survey, respondents listed teaching ahead of the clergy, lawyers, and public officials in the significance of the contribution made to community life. In Terrien's study, 97 per cent of the people interviewed (out of a sample of 639 persons) said they considered teaching to be a profession. Research evidence indicates that teaching is accorded professional status. In addition, observation will confirm the fact that the public accords teachers high status.

Specialized knowledge. There can be no question that this characteristic is prevalent in the profession of teaching. Teachers must be broadly educated in the liberal arts, and they must have broad and deep knowledge of their teaching field. A knowledge of pedagogy is essential. The fact that many teachers can be found in America's schools who do not possess adequate knowledge does not negate the fact that the profession of teaching has a body of specialized knowledge. Professional education or pedagogy is not as well defined as it should be, and so far it lacks a respected academic tradition; but great progress is being made toward accumulating and validating a body of specialized knowledge in this area.

⁶ John Wesley Best, "A Study of Certain Selected Factors Underlying the Choice of Teaching as a Profession," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. XVII, No. 1 (September, 1948), pp. 218-219; George R. Cressman and Harold W. Benda, *Public Education in America* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956), p. 192.

⁷ Elmo Roper, *Life* (October 16, 1950); Frederic W. Terrien, "Who Thinks What About Education," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XIX, No. 2 (September, 1953); Lloyd W. Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated?* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944).

Therefore, it can be stated accurately that the profession of teaching is characterized by a body of specialized knowledge.

Intellectual activity. Teaching requires the application of knowledge to professional problems. The teacher must be a scholar in his field and keep abreast of new knowledge in both subject content and pedagogy. Daily in his work he meets instructional problems which require the application of knowledge as well as the intellectual processes involved in diagnosis and treatment. High intellectual ability and scholastic success are essential for success in teaching. Clearly, this criterion is satisfied inasmuch as teaching—as much or more so than any other occupation—is intellectual in nature.

Standards of professional qualifications for admission. In all states teacher certification laws and regulations define the professional qualifications for admission to teaching. These serve to exclude those who are unqualified. Such laws and regulations, in all but a few states, specify a minimum of four years of college for a teacher's license. Other requirements—the number of hours in professional education, teaching field and other courses, and good health as well as character—are often stipulated in certification regulations. The standards of professional qualifications for admission to teaching are being improved rapidly through the leadership of such groups as the Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the National Society of Teachers of Education, the National Council on Accreditation of Teacher Education, the education associations of the various states, and state departments of education.

Ethics enforced by professional organizations. These two characteristics—(1) the existence of a code of ethics which governs the conduct of members, and (2) the maintenance of strong professional organizations—are so complex and interrelated that a more extensive treatment of each is presented below. It is clear, however, that teaching qualifies as a profession under both these criteria.

PROFESSIONAL ETHICS IN TEACHING

A profession maintains an official philosophy, known as its code of ethics, which serves as a guide to its members. The objective

of such standards of values and professional conduct is twofold. First of all, they aim to protect the public served; second, they promote the welfare of members of the profession itself.

Source of Codes of Ethics

The concern of the public for the conduct of teachers is generally well known. It has been expressed in both official contracts by which teachers were employed and in the informal censorship that has prevailed in many communities. In the absence of defined standards of professional behavior, teachers are at the mercy of public opinion as to what is "good" or "bad" pedagogical practice and "right" or "wrong" personal conduct. To correct such conditions, teachers, like members of other professions, must develop standards which are acceptable both to the public and to members of the profession.

Responsibility of Members of the Profession

Maturity of a professional field is evidenced by the willingness of members to maintain and be governed by a code of ethics. Teaching, it must be admitted, has been somewhat retarded in this respect. The medical profession maintains a modern code, *Principles of Medical Ethics*, which dates back to the Oath of Hippocrates; the legal profession has a 32-item canon of ethics; dentistry and architecture both have accepted codes; but teaching as yet has been able to establish no single code acceptable to all members of its ranks.

Most teachers appreciate the desirability of agreeing on a common code to guide their professional practice. But such factors as high turnover and low standards for admission to the profession in some states have mitigated against such an attainment.

The Code of the National Education Association

The most comprehensive attempt to establish a code of ethics for teaching is the code of ethics adopted by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association in 1952. This set of standards enjoys the endorsement of the NEA membership of over 700,000 members and would no doubt be recognized by most as the national standard. More than a third of the elementary and secondary school teachers, however, do not belong to the

National Education Association. In addition, state and even local teachers associations maintain codes of their own which may divide loyalties and confuse individual members relative to the best set of standards to follow.

The Code of the National Education Association is worthy of study since it is the most widely recognized statement of ethics available. The Association, in the Preamble to its statement, indicates a determination to make its standards applicable to schools at all levels, including colleges and universities: *

Preamble (to Code of Ethics of National Education Association)

We, the members of the National Education Association of the United States, hold these truths to be self-evident—

- that the primary purpose of education in the United States is to develop citizens who will safeguard, strengthen, and improve the democracy obtained through a representative government;
- that the achievement of effective democracy in all aspects of American life and the maintenance of our national ideals depend upon making acceptable educational opportunities available to all;
- that the quality of education reflects the ideals, motives, preparation, and conduct of the members of the teaching profession;
- that whoever chooses teaching as a career assumes the obligation to conduct himself in accordance with the ideals of the profession.

As a guide for the teaching profession, the members of the National Education Association have adopted this code of professional ethics. Since all teachers should be members of a united profession, the basic principles herein enumerated apply to all persons engaged in the professional aspects of education—elementary, secondary, and collegiate.

It will be observed that this introduction emphasizes the social responsibility of education and its unique commitment to democracy as practiced in the United States. It stresses, also, the relationship between quality of education and the status and preparation of members of the teaching profession as well as the obligation of all who choose to teach to abide by the standards of conduct enunciated.

The Code itself deals with both principles of professional responsibility and rules to govern the actions of teachers. The principles pertain to the relationships that teachers are expected to

* Adopted by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association in 1952.

maintain with students, with parents and homes, with the school and community, with employers, and with professional associates.

Principles of Ethics

I. The primary obligation of the teaching profession is to guide children, youth and adults in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, to prepare them in the ways of democracy, and to help them to become happy, useful, self-supporting citizens. The ultimate strength of the nation lies in the social responsibility, economic competence, and moral strength of the individual American.

II. The members of the teaching profession share with parents the task of shaping each student's purposes and acts toward socially acceptable ends. The effectiveness of many methods of teaching is dependent upon co-operative relationships with the home.

Rules to Govern Teacher Actions

In fulfilling the obligations of this first principle the teacher will:

1. Deal justly and impartially with students regardless of their physical, mental, emotional, political, economic, social, racial, or religious characteristics.

2. Recognize the differences among students and seek to meet their individual needs.

3. Encourage students to formulate and work for high individual goals in the development of their physical, intellectual, creative, and spiritual endowments.

4. Aid students to develop an understanding and appreciation not only of the opportunities and benefits of American democracy but also of their obligations to it.

5. Respect the right of every student to have confidential information about himself withheld except when its release is to authorized agencies or is required by law.

6. Accept no remuneration for tutoring except in accordance with approved policies of the governing board.

. . . the teacher will:

1. Respect the basic responsibility of parents for their children.

2. Seek to establish friendly and co-operative relationships with the home.

3. Help to increase the student's confidence in his own home and avoid disparaging remarks which might undermine that confidence.

Principles of Ethics

III. The teaching profession occupies a position of public trust involving not only the individual teacher's personal conduct, but also the interaction of the school and the community. Education is most effective when these many relationships operate in a friendly, co-operative, and constructive manner.

IV. The members of the teaching profession have inescapable obligations with respect to employment. These obligations are nearly always

Rules to Govern Teacher Actions

4. Provide parents with information that will serve the best interests of their children, and be discreet with information received from parents.

5. Keep parents informed about the progress of their children as interpreted in terms of the purposes of the school.

. . . the teacher will:

1. Adhere to any reasonable pattern of behavior accepted by the community for professional persons.

2. Perform the duties of citizenship, and participate in community activities with due consideration for his obligations to his students, his family, and himself.

3. Discuss controversial issues from an objective point of view, thereby keeping his class free from partisan opinions.

4. Recognize that the public schools belong to the people of the community, encourage lay participation in shaping the purposes of the school, and strive to keep the public informed of the educational program which is being provided.

5. Respect the community in which he is employed and be loyal to the school system, community, state, and nation.

6. Work to improve education in the community and to strengthen the community's moral, spiritual, and intellectual life.

. . . the teacher will:

1. Conduct professional business through the proper channels.

2. Refrain from discussing con-

V. The teaching profession is distinguished from many other occupations by the uniqueness and quality of the professional relationships among all teachers. *Community support and respect are influenced by the standards of teachers and their attitudes toward teaching and other teachers.*

12. Accept one's obligation to the employing board for maintaining a professional level of service.

. . . the teacher will:

1. Deal with other members of the profession in the same manner as he himself wishes to be treated.

2. Stand by other teachers who have acted on his behalf and at his request.

3. Speak constructively of other teachers, but report honestly to responsible persons in matters involving the welfare of students, the school system, and the profession.

4. Maintain active membership in professional organizations, and, through participation, strive to attain the objectives that justify such organized groups.

5. Seek to make professional growth continuous by such procedures as study, research, travel, conferences, and attendance at professional meetings.

6. Make the teaching profession so attractive in ideals and practices that sincere and able young people will want to enter it.

The extent of the details incorporated in the NEA Code is due, it must be assumed, to the procedure by which such a document is developed and approved. Numerous state as well as national groups contributed suggestions out of which this statement was drawn. Efforts to make it all-inclusive and completely representative of the wishes of the membership, plus an attempt to make it clear in its meaning to every teacher, give it a degree of specificity that is objectionable to some. Nevertheless, the problem of obtaining a favorable vote on a less-detailed document, when professional behavior still varies as much as it does in teaching, can be appreciated. One is reminded that for gentlemen "Conduct becoming to

a gentleman," is a sufficient guide for behavior; for others, regulations ad infinitum may still fall short. The truth is that whereas teaching is a profession, many of those who teach are not highly professional members; consequently, the National Education Association has found it necessary to indulge in a detailed description of behavior becoming to a teacher.

State and Local Association Codes of Ethics

Forty-six education associations have formally adopted codes of ethics to govern the behavior of teachers. In addition, local associations often develop their own codes. The practice of local and state associations' endorsing the Code of the National Education Association is becoming more prevalent. Such action, however, is not obligatory since state and local associations are not direct subsidiary members of the NEA.

Often state and local codes reflect the attitudes and concerns of leaders and teachers involved. They may also be influenced by factors unique to the history or legal status of education in a state or school district. Whatever may be their character, it is generally agreed that the process of developing local and state codes of ethics for teachers has been a beneficial one to those involved. By defining the conduct desired for teachers, members of the profession have educated themselves relative to the obligations of professional status.

Enforcement of Standards

The major weakness of existing codes of ethics—apart from the lack of acceptance of a single one as the standard nationally and the overabundance of minute detailed specifications which characterize practically all—is found in the absence of enforcement provisions. To be of maximum value to a profession a code must be enforced. Members who violate it must be disciplined. Such action is the responsibility of the profession itself.

The National Education Association notes in its handbook that a code of ethics is similar to a constitution of a government in that it "comes fully alive only when interpreted and construed as specific questions arise." * A significant effort is made continuously

* National Education Association, *NEA Handbook* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1953), p. 63.

by the NEA to bring the Code "fully alive." A standing Committee on Professional Ethics studies the Code and makes recommendations for its improvement, publicizes and interprets the Code, and takes action it "deems appropriate on cases involving violation of the Code." Appropriate action sometimes means expulsion from the NEA. (The Committee published a booklet a few years ago entitled *Opinion of the Committee on Professional Ethics.*)

The National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education of the NEA investigates controversies "involving teachers, schools, educational methods and procedures . . ." ¹⁰ Findings of the Commission are published in booklet form. Questions of professional ethics are often involved in the investigations made under the leadership of the Commission.

A few states have developed enforcement provisions for their codes of ethics. The California Teachers Association formed its State Ethics Commission in 1947. It has the responsibility of enforcing the standards for California teachers, may hold hearings, discipline members, and recommend expulsion for flagrant violations of the state code.

In general, codes of ethics serve as statements of ideals of conduct for teachers. As such, they are valuable guides to prospective teachers who are developing their own professional value systems. It is to be anticipated that as the profession becomes more tightly organized at the national level stronger provisions will be made to enforce a single code and thus guarantee minimum standards of professional conduct and practice.

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

One unusual characteristic of the teaching profession is its almost countless number of organizations. More than 500 national and regional educational associations exist. Even on the state level there are over 100 without counting the various local associations which are more numerous than school districts themselves. Examples of the types of organizations are described to illustrate the multiplicity of professional associations serving teachers.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 91.

Future Teachers of America

The Future Teachers of America organization was established by the National Education Association in 1937. This organization has chapters in high schools throughout the United States. The organization for future teachers in college is known as the Student National Education Association. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards administers the programs of both the Future Teachers of America and the Student National Education Association. Through the college or university chapter the prospective teacher can take an active part in his state and national education association. The objectives of the college and university FTA program are: ¹¹

(1) To develop among students who are preparing to be teachers an organization which will be an integral part of state and national education associations; (2) To acquaint education students with the history, ethics, and program of the organized teaching profession; (3) To give education students practical experience in working together in a democratic way on the problems of the profession and the community; (4) To interest the best young men and women in education as a career; (5) To encourage careful selection of persons admitted to schools which prepare teachers, with emphasis on both character and scholarship; (6) To seek through the dissemination of information and through higher standards of preparation to bring teacher supply and demand into a reasonable balance.

Participation in a college or university chapter entitles one to membership in the National Education Association for \$1.00 annually; and membership is open to FTA personnel in state educational associations for a nominal fee. Members of the Future Teachers of America who join the NEA and state associations at student rates are entitled to all the services, including publications, that regular members receive.

National Education Association

The National Education Association is the largest teachers' organization in the United States. At the present time it has more than 700,000 members. Although this is less than 50 per cent of all the

¹¹ T. M. Stinnett, *The Teacher and Professional Organizations* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 3rd ed., 1956).

teachers in the United States, the percentage is remarkable when it is realized that as late as 1940 less than one out of every four teachers belonged. NEA membership by states is shown in Table 15.

TABLE 15

**MEMBERSHIP IN THE NATIONAL EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION, 1960**

State	Estimated Number of Teachers	Number of NEA Members
Alabama	27,850	19,263
Alaska	1,824	1,227
Arizona	10,300	9,641
Arkansas	14,589	8,603
California	123,300	60,025
Colorado	17,000	9,381
Connecticut	20,820	4,870
Delaware	3,550	1,809
District of Columbia	4,595	2,569
Florida	39,279	14,905
Georgia	33,704	20,283
Hawaii	5,270	3,093
Idaho	6,200	5,204
Illinois	70,600	33,542
Indiana	36,700	17,926
Iowa	27,781	18,282
Kansas	23,000	21,168
Kentucky	24,463	14,336
Louisiana	27,069	6,257
Maine	8,130	3,705
Maryland	23,740	12,755
Massachusetts	37,549	6,311
Michigan	66,750	20,046
Minnesota	29,625	11,100
Mississippi	17,808	3,421
Missouri	31,740	19,032
Montana	7,465	5,903
Nebraska	14,435	5,770
Nevada	2,750	2,134
New Hampshire	4,379	1,967
New Jersey	46,350	20,951
New Mexico	9,029	7,575
New York (State)	82,400	20,907
New York City	45,000	719

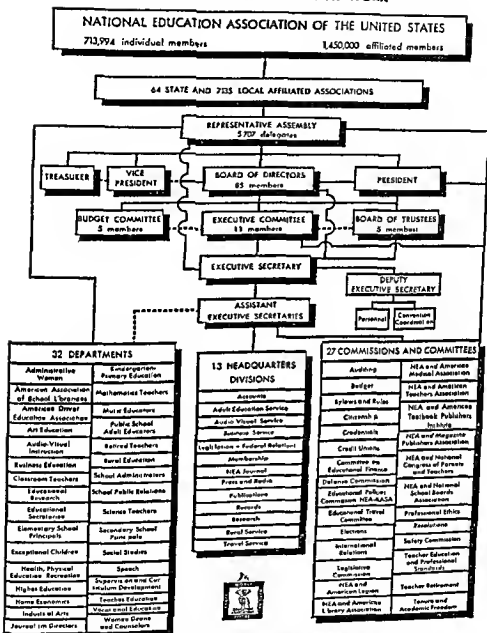
TABLE 15 Continued

State	Estimated Number of Teachers	Number of NEA Members
North Carolina	39,402	24,732
North Dakota	7,105	3,672
Ohio	74,300	41,712
Oklahoma	21,150	13,489
Oregon	16,950	14,967
Pennsylvania	79,319	51,197
Puerto Rico	14,686	2,866
Rhode Island	5,800	248
South Carolina	20,895	8,582
South Dakota	8,199	2,920
Tennessee	28,540	20,697
Texas	84,829	25,946
Utah	8,600	8,251
Vermont	3,290	1,186
Virginia	33,200	16,677
Washington	26,375	21,081
West Virginia	17,354	15,161
Wisconsin	29,600	9,433
Wyoming	3,864	3,097

SOURCE: Data supplied by Sam M. Lambert, Director, National Education Association, Research Division.

The National Education Association is a voluntary, nongovernmental body which originated in a meeting in Philadelphia in 1857. Its governing policies are formulated by delegates, over 5,000, who meet annually in what is called the Representative Assembly. A professional staff of more than 800 people carries on the work of 32 departments, 13 divisions, and 27 commissions and committees. The offices are housed in a newly completed NEA Headquarters building located in Washington, D.C. Concerted efforts are made by the various departments and commissions to serve all members of the profession—classroom teachers, supervisors, administrators, and college personnel. Close working relationships are maintained also with state and local associations which may affiliate on a voluntary basis. Goals established to guide the work of the Association are numerous yet explicit. They are perhaps best summarized in its Charter: "To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and

OUR UNITED PROFESSION AT WORK



THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION IS THE ONLY ORGANIZATION THAT REPRESENTS OR HAS THE POSSIBILITY OF REPRESENTING THE GREAT BODY OF TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES.

FIGURE 18.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

From NEA Handbook

to promote the cause of popular education in the United States."

The complexity and scope of the National Education Association is indicated in the organizational chart shown as Figure 18.

The American Federation of Teachers

The American Federation of Teachers, another national teachers' organization, is a union which is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. It was chartered by the AFL in 1916 and now has about 400 local affiliates. Today the AFT claims some 60,000 members, most of whom are teachers in urban and industrial areas. The AFT is open to teachers only. Teachers in private and parochial schools are not eligible for membership; nor are school administrators.

The objectives of the AFT are as follows:¹²

(1) To bring associations of teachers into relations of mutual assistance and co-operation; (2) To obtain for them all the rights to which they are entitled; (3) To raise the standard of the teaching profession by securing the conditions essential to the best professional service; (4) To promote such a democratization of the schools as will enable them better to equip their pupils to take their places in the industrial, social and political life of the community; (5) To promote the welfare of the childhood of the nation by providing progressively better educational opportunities for all.

Members pay monthly AFT dues, graduated in accordance with their salaries. Policies are made by the conventions of members.

Other National Organizations

To show the diversity of national teachers' organizations, a few are listed as follows:

American Association of University Professors—an organization of professors in colleges and universities

American Education Fellowship—an organization of parents, teachers, and administrators whose purpose is the promotion of a liberal philosophy and intelligent educational experimentation

American Teachers Association—an organization of Negro teachers in 14 Middle Atlantic and Southern states

Associated Organizations for Teacher Education—organized

¹² Constitution of the American Federation of Teachers, Article II.

late in 1959 to enhance communications and co-ordination of the various groups in the teacher education field

Kappa Delta Pi—a national honorary fraternity open to both men and women in education

National Catholic Educational Association—an organization that promotes co-operation and mutual helpfulness among Catholic educators

National Council of Independent Schools—composed of educators from independent schools

Phi Delta Kappa—a national honorary fraternity for men in education

Pi Lambda Tbeta—a national honorary organization for women in education

World Organization of the Teaching Profession—serves teachers and their organizations in all parts of the world without regard for their field of specialization, religion or color

Students who are interested in obtaining additional information about organizations of teachers may consult the *Educational Directory*, a publication of the United States Office of Education.

State Educational Associations

Each of the 50 states has a state association for teachers. About 90 per cent of the public school teachers in the United States hold membership in a state association.

State associations, like the NEA, are usually divided into departments for special interest groups—English teachers, social studies teachers, science teachers, principals, and superintendents, for example. Each department has considerable freedom in formulating and carrying out programs.

State associations publish journals, hold sectional and state meetings, conduct research, promote legislation, and provide such services as maintaining insurance and hospitalization plans and providing legal advice to members. In recent years they have become more active in advocating and supporting standards for the admission of teaching and for the preservice preparation of members of the profession in colleges and universities.

Local Educational Associations

Local educational organizations are the backbone of state and national associations. They are, further, the antecedents of both. The first local teachers' group, the Society of Associated Teachers in New York City, was organized in 1794. Boston followed with an association in 1830, and in 1831 Cincinnati organized the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers.

The objectives of each local association are determined by its membership; yet they tend to be similar. Common purposes include (1) in-service education of members; (2) teacher participation in policy development; (3) building of *esprit de corps* among the professional staff; (4) promoting legislation favorable to education; (5) promoting community interest in and support of educational progress; (6) stimulating professional initiative and spirit; and (7) providing support for state and national programs.

Teachers' associations at all levels—local, state, and national—need to be made more effective. Their potential contributions to improving the teaching profession are yet to be realized in most instances. Through these organizations, teachers with common purposes and loyalties can enhance the status of the teaching profession and improve the quality of service rendered the public.

PROFESSIONAL OBLIGATIONS AND BENEFITS

Membership in a profession carries with it both obligations and benefits for individuals. The extent to which full returns are enjoyed depends heavily upon how well educators fulfill their responsibilities as professional people and work together to improve their own status.

The Professional Commitment

By its nature and function teaching is a profession. Yet to argue that because this is true everyone who is teaching is a professional person is to ignore the cold fact that each teacher must achieve such status for himself. If such status is to be achieved: "There is no substitute for individual commitment to professional responsibilities. . . . Every educator must be a keeper of the 'profes-

sional conscience.'"¹³ In practice, too few teachers embrace a professional commitment to study, work, and live as professional people, supporting high standards for all members of the profession. Too many, both men and women, look upon teaching as a temporary job, rather than as a profession. In the same school, highly professional teachers may practice along with individuals who view their work through the eyes of amateurs or laymen and bring to it the attitudes and standards of unskilled or semiskilled tradesmen rather than professionals.

Basically, the professional commitment is characterized by a lifelong status, continuing scholarship, refinement of skill, and association with and support of efforts to strengthen and maintain the profession carried on by organized teacher groups.

Lifelong status. Once professional standing is achieved, it becomes a lifelong possession of the individual whose commitment is sincere. This is true whether or not professional practice is continued. The nurse who discontinues work does not relinquish professional status, nor does the lawyer who does not practice law. Similarly, the teacher with a professional commitment continues to be always a teacher whether or not practice is maintained at a given time.

The woman who prepares for teaching only because she, or her parents, see it as an insurance policy against the need for "something to fall back on," or the failure to acquire a husband, is unlikely to put forth the effort that preparation for a profession requires. Similarly, the man who sees teaching as a stepping stone to another field, or something to do because it requires less preparation than other professions, may fail to be a professional scholar. In addition, those whose life plans or employment have taken them away from classrooms and who class themselves as "used to be" teachers probably never developed strong professional commitments initially.

Professional status is available; but the commitment to this goal is determined by each individual. The prospective teacher who sees himself as preparing for lifelong professional standing will find that his attitude will pay rich dividends in motivation

¹³ Dave Darland, "There Is No Substitute," *TEPS Newsletter*, Vol. 3, No. 4 (April, 1960), p. 2.

and results as well as in the satisfactions achieved from his college program of preparation.

Continued scholarship. The professional teacher is obligated to keep abreast of his field of specialization, to maintain an intellectual life, and to keep his professional skill ready for use. Even those who discontinue practice will find their commitment to teaching a drive to self-improvement and a source of personal pride and satisfaction. They will know, also, that by keeping abreast of their profession they stand by ready for duty when emergencies, either personal or social, dictate their return to practice. The dedicated career teacher will not need to be driven by external rewards and regulations to keep abreast professionally; his motivation will come from the image he maintains of himself as a professional person and a desire to maintain the standards he sets for himself.

Association with and support of efforts to strengthen the profession. A prominent educator recently posed three questions of grave importance to every teacher and every future teacher. He asked:¹⁴

... are we ready to come to grips with the distressing problem of fragmentation of the teaching profession? Are we ready, all of us, at whatever level and in whatever field in education we are engaged, to view ourselves as members of one body? Are we ready, each of us, to assume a rightful share of the task of achieving the standards by which competence can reasonably be guaranteed for all admitted to practice?

Membership in professional organizations is a minimum expectation of every teacher; active support of its program to strengthen itself is a characteristic of everyone with a strong professional commitment. Only through co-operative efforts in local, state, and national organizations may the strength necessary to elevate and enforce high professional standards be achieved.

Obligations of the Profession to Teachers

A profession, by the nature of its service to people, places its members at the mercy of the vicissitudes of public opinion that

¹⁴T. M. Stinnett, "The Road Ahead," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. XI, No. 1 (March, 1960), p. 5.

always play upon vital aspects of human existence—health, education, and religion. Teaching requires the professional practitioner to engage in the highly delicate process of promoting changes in the thinking and behavior of young people. Family and community attitudes, traditions, folklore, superstitions as well as dogmas, may be refuted by established knowledge taught to children but unavailable or unacceptable to their elders. The resulting challenge to established values may threaten people psychologically. Such insecurity may result in attacks against the individuals and institutions that pose the threat. Socrates, it will be remembered, paid with his life because the substance and methods of his teachings made too many people anxious and hostile toward him.

Protection of members against unfair and abusive treatment by the public served is an obligation of all professions. As the Educational Policies Commission has pointed out, "High standards of professional service can be maintained only in favorable circumstances. To secure these circumstances for its members is a primary objective of every profession."¹⁵

Protection of freedom to teach. Loyal and capable teachers have every right to expect freedom to teach. In this era of McCarthyism and the "organization man," freedom is being eroded.¹⁶ Teachers, by the very nature of their work, are guardians of the integrity of individuals, of the philosophy and practice of democratic living. Sometimes in asserting their rights and living up to their responsibilities as guardians of the philosophy and practice of democratic living, teachers incur the wrath of individuals and groups who would impose upon the nation their own particular brand of democracy.

When vocal minority groups bring pressure to bear upon teachers, the profession has an obligation to protect them. The NEA has two organizations that promote and defend the professional status of teachers. The Committee on Tenure and Academic

¹⁵ Educational Policies Commission, *Professional Organizations in American Education* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1957), p. 11.

¹⁶ For documentation see B. J. Chandler, "Freedom of Inquiry Is In Jeopardy," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XLI, No. 8 (May, 1960), pp. 356-358; Louis Joughin, "The Selection of Fulbright Scholars," *AAUP Bulletin*, Vol. 46, No. 1 (Spring, 1960), pp. 8-17.

Freedom concentrates its efforts on the promotion of tenure and academic freedom through sound legislation, and wise practices on the local level. The second committee, the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education, in co-operation with state and local education associations, investigates cases of alleged unjust discharge or treatment of individual teachers or administrators. It should be made clear, however, that neither of these groups has any legal power; they carry on their work through methods of persuasion and publicity. Nevertheless, they have had a salutary effect upon the teaching profession. Several state associations have similar committees functioning solely to protect individual teachers from unfair or unjust treatment.

Provision of leadership to improve education. A second general type of obligation, one positive in nature, is incumbent upon the profession of teaching. It relates to providing leadership for the improvement of the organization, structure, and services of education itself. To accomplish this goal, professional associations sponsor conferences, hold conventions and publish journals to disseminate ideas, facts, and information. Research and experimentation are encouraged and sometimes conducted by the staff members of state and national bodies. In-service education of teachers as well as curriculum development projects are supported.

A good example of leadership that should improve education is the New Horizons Project. This study, completed in 1960, provided ". . . some philosophical guide lines for the profession. . . ." ¹⁷ as well as some suggested programs for improvement of teaching. The director of the Project, Margaret Lindsey, called upon educators to "reverse the tendency to locate the shaping forces of our profession outside ourselves." It is to be hoped that the findings of the Project will enhance the "moral commitment to deliver quality service to every child and youth in America through the improvement of the teaching profession."

Although professional teachers' associations are sometimes accused of pursuing interests confined solely to enhancing the personal status of their members—as, for example, working to improve salaries and retirement plans, to establish tenure, and to reduce work loads—the truth is that these groups give major atten-

¹⁷ Darland, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

tion and financial support to projects designed to strengthen and extend the benefits of education. Legislation affecting children, from child labor laws to compulsory school attendance, has had strong backing from organized groups of teachers. Close co-operation is maintained with other educationally oriented agencies, such as state departments of public instruction, the United States Office of Education, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the National School Boards Association, on matters of general concern in the field of education.

In short, leadership to improve education as well as the professional status of teachers, is a responsibility of the organized teaching profession. Established organizations and associations of various sorts are the channels through which such leadership comes to fruition.

NEEDED IMPROVEMENTS IN THE PROFESSION OF TEACHING

If one listens to the man on the street, he will from time to time hear criticisms of various professions. "Medical service is too expensive." "University professors live in ivory towers." "Ministers are provincial." "Lawyers are dishonest." The profession of teaching is no exception. Like other professions it should examine criticisms from lay people as well as those from within its own ranks to discover weaknesses in its service to the public.

Teachers Should Welcome Needed Changes

Sometimes professional people are charged with being dedicated to the preservation of their expertness by ignoring needs for change. It is argued by some that if change takes place, the knowledge that makes one an expert will change and thereby jeopardize his status. The existence of some tendency to rigidity of practice and *status quoism* in the teaching profession can hardly be disputed. Progress demands change. Teachers should be receptive to changes that promise improved practices.

The Profession of Teaching Should Discipline Its Members

A fairly common criticism of teaching is that once a person is accepted as a member, his fellow practitioners will overlook

unsatisfactory performance. Malpractice is often ignored or winked at by fellow members of a profession, so the charge goes. In too many instances, the criticism is justified. A code of professional ethics that is universally adopted and enforced is imperative. Teachers should take the lead in weeding out undesirable members of the profession.

Obstacles to the Further Professionalization of Teaching Should Be Removed

It is generally recognized among educators that certain conceptions and conditions tend to mitigate against further professionalization of teaching. Among the more formidable obstacles to further professionalization are the following:

(1) The fallacy that successful teaching is a matter of practical skill that can be picked up on the job; (2) The chronic imbalance in the supply and demand for qualified teachers; (3) The relatively low standards of admission to preparational programs for teaching; (4) The stop-gap concept of teaching—"I must prepare for some occupation during my four years in college," or "I need something to fall back on if I'm not successful in my first occupational choice." (5) The absence of a unified professional organization of teachers; (6) Low standards of certification that exist in several states; (7) The tendency of teachers to deprecate their own profession; (8) The existence of many teacher-education programs of poor quality.

In the final analysis, professional status must be earned or merited by an occupational group. Members of a profession must make sure that they can guarantee to the public their competence, professional character, and honorable practice. When a group can offer such a guarantee, it can achieve and maintain professional status. Members of the profession of teaching have sole responsibility for achieving professional status personally and for extending such status to others.

SUMMARY

Until the present century the services of members of professions were rather primitive. Practitioners were poorly trained. Educational standards for admission to the service groups were low.

The twentieth century has seen several significant develop-

ments in professional fields. The rapid accumulation of knowledge has brought about specialization. Standards for admission to professions have risen significantly, and the quality of service rendered has increased appreciably. The aim of professional practitioners is now not only to help people to survive but to live abundantly in a society that demands more and more service.

A profession has several distinguishing characteristics. Among the more important ones are these: service is valued more than professional gain; the public accords members high status; practice is based on a body of specialized knowledge; practice demands intellectual activity; standards of qualifications for admission to the group are maintained; conduct of members is governed by ethics; and a strong organization is maintained.

A code of ethics contains an official philosophy of a profession that serves as a guide to its members. The objectives of such a code are to protect the public served and to promote the welfare of members of the profession itself. The National Education Association has adopted a code of ethics which establishes five principles covering teachers' obligations to students, to parents and homes, to school and community, to employer, and to professional associates.

Teacher organizations in the United States are almost countless. Their efforts to improve education are both significant and effective.

Membership in a profession carries with it both obligations and benefits for individuals. Teaching demands a profound commitment for each person which is exemplified by lifelong status and scholarship. Common goals of teachers are advanced through their organizations. In turn, teachers should rightfully expect to have their freedom to teach and learn protected. Teacher organizations owe leadership and stimulation to members.

Major improvements are needed in the profession of teaching. Teachers should welcome rather than resist needed changes, and they should strive to remove obstacles blocking needed improvement.

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THE TEACHER AND
THE COMMUNITY

No other profession involves its members so closely with the community in which practice is performed as does teaching. Physicians treat individual patients, lawyers counsel clients, ministers serve their own congregations, engineers deal with material projects, architects design buildings, and social workers investigate selected cases. Teachers, in contrast, particularly those in public schools, in addition to instructing the children assigned to their care, must work with practically the entire community.

The close association of teachers with their communities results from two principal factors: (1) the public ownership of schools with a high degree of local autonomy, and (2) the integral relationship between the work of teachers and the welfare and progress of all aspects of life—moral, cultural, civic, economic, vocational, and professional. The first six chapters of this book document the foregoing generalizations. So vital is the work of the teachers to the total community that schools are often blamed for a variety of inadequacies that may from time to time become apparent in communities. Rarely, to illustrate the point further, would a community blame the medical profession for an epidemic; nor would the heavy highway traffic toll be charged to engineers, poor laws to lawyers, slums to architects, or juvenile delinquency to social workers. Yet, people do not hesitate to condemn schools and teachers when a foreign power demonstrates a scientific accomplishment beyond ours, when young people and adults fail to exhibit mature patterns of behavior, when enrollments in science and mathematics in college fall behind industrial and military demands for scientific personnel, or when materialism rather than human and moral concerns tend to dominate the interests of people.

THE FORCE OF THE TEACHER IN THE COMMUNITY

The force of the teacher in the community has gained in strength in recent years.¹ Attitudes toward teachers are changing as teachers themselves show deeper concerns for the relationships that prevail between their work and the total life of people.

Changing Attitudes Toward Teachers

Early teachers were servants in individual households; they had no relationships to the community at all. The first professional teachers, who charged fees for their services, were called Sophists, meaning "men of wisdom." They came to Athens during the fifth century B.C. to give instruction in language, reasoning, and oratory. Many were highly regarded, but their ranks were filled with charlatans. They took an active part in community affairs, however, since they stressed a "practical education" keyed to the strong individualistic strain that developed in Greek life prior to Plato's day. Their instruction in reasoning, based on common sense and rhetoric, was extremely valuable to the citizen who sought advantage in political affairs. Some Sophists, however, tended to help students argue their own cases to best advantage, without regard for fact; as a consequence, all Sophists came to be stereotyped as "sellers of rhetorical tricks and dishonest arguments" instead of seekers of the truth. Thus the word sophistry came to mean dishonest argument.

The charging of fees ran counter to the Athenian dedication to amateurism. This and other factors led to the early ridicule of the teacher as: "He who cannot do, teaches." Even more serious in terms of the community relationships of the Sophists was their questioning of old customs, political traditions, the state of the gods, and religious beliefs. In the time of peace, such skepticism was ridiculed and opposed verbally; but when Athens became embroiled in war, the loyalties of teachers were challenged. Many were driven out; and Socrates, a native Athenian who was the greatest Sophist of all and one who had won high respect, was condemned to death.

Stereotypes of teachers. The early distrust of teachers and the

¹ For an example see Mary Lee Scriven, "A Community That Cares," *The National Parent-Teacher*, Vol. 54, No. 9 (May, 1960), pp. 32-35.

teendency of communities to give to them stereotypes that belittle and ridicule have persisted down through the ages. Early colonial teachers were pictured as "men of mind, who had no mind for hard work." The angular, impractical Ichabod Crane became a caricature of the male teachers of the nineteenth century. The meek and mousy Mr. Peepers of recent television fame represents an extension of the stereotypes of men in teaching. Women have fared little better by the public picture painted of them as teachers. The image of a cloistered spinster, devoid of personality and natural biological drives, who shuns community life to "keep school" and set a noble example of virtue for the young, is well known by all. The recent version, reflected in the television character, *Our Miss Brooks*, is modernized to the extent of adding a tough cleverness and the open and frank admission that she prefers marriage to manuals for teaching English. But even this stereotype is of a woman who appears pathetically weary of her assignment—and she is still single.

Other characteristics came to be blended into the images of the teacher that the public held and popularized, including such traits as self-denial—teachers were not supposed to crave material rewards; exemplary behavior—teachers did not smoke, go to dances and cocktail parties, or play cards; religious dedication—teachers were expected or required to teach Sunday School classes; political abstinence—teachers in most communities were to avoid active participation in government or be frowned upon.

Public endorsement of teachers. Despite this heritage of unfavorable public attitudes and community isolationism, teachers today find themselves described and pictured in favorable terms on radio and television as well as in the public press. They are very much involved in community life and are being accorded increasing degrees of personal, political, and religious freedom to live as other professional people do.

The public endorsement of teachers has been accelerated by the acute shortage of qualified teachers, which has made the career teacher relatively free to change positions, and the growing recognition of the importance of education in the new scientific age. These two forces have caused the public to change its image of the teacher from one of a ridiculed and tolerated servant to that of a respected intellectual leader.

Developing Concerns of Teachers

As the teacher's interest and leadership in community affairs is again welcomed, certain concerns have become fairly common as professional goals for all educational personnel. For this reason preparation for teaching today places considerable emphasis upon the study of community life, the means by which schools may improve communities, the basic premises which support the uniting of school and community in a common cause, and the ways in which community resources may be utilized to strengthen educational programs.

To study communities. Because of the impact of community life upon both the goals of schools and the motivations of individual students, teachers find it imperative to study communities generally as well as individually. Such scholarship involves, first of all, acquiring a knowledge of the sociological composition of all communities to help the teacher in understanding and predicting the forces that will operate in any given situation. In this phase of preparation, the functions, structure, typical patterns of activity, sources of stability, cultural resources, essential services, and leadership are the content of the study.

A second phase of community study involves the identification of factors which, as some say, give personality to particular communities. These include historical development, racial and religious composition, impact of particular business and industrial developments, force of certain institutions such as colleges or prisons, and the power structure that results from the intermeshing of various community characteristics. In effect, this aspect of community study involves the application of the general principles of social structure to specific examples. Its professional purpose as far as the teacher is concerned is to develop a sensitivity to forces and patterns and to perfect a degree of skill in the discovery and analyses of factors that give uniqueness to each community, whether it be a rural school district or a major metropolitan area. Some sources of knowledge for the teacher are shown visually in Figure 19.

To improve communities. The responsibility of teachers and schools for community improvement has not yet been defined to the satisfaction of all. Those who contend that the job of the

school is strictly academic—to teach the basic skills, the three R's, and the formal subjects of the school curriculum—claim that the teacher's relationship to community improvement is indirect. They hold that good academic educational programs will eventuate in improvement of community living as the recipients of schooling later apply what they have learned. This concept, while partially valid, provides for only a remote relationship between the school and the community and may permit the school to emphasize content that is out of touch with life itself.

A contrasting point of view expects teachers and schools to serve

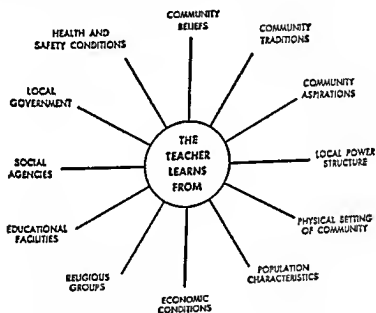


FIGURE 19.

THE TEACHER LEARNS FROM STUDY OF THE COMMUNITY

the community in various direct and immediate ways, in addition to performing the function of providing academic preparation for students. Supporters of this position contend that the interaction between the formal education program and the community must be continuous. They point out that the school is only one source of education for young people, that learning in school is profoundly influenced by home environment; community mores; moral, social, economic and political forces; health, recreational, and cultural activities; and standards supported by citizens generally.

The belief that the work of schools can contribute immediately to the solution of community problems is documented by numerous case studies which illustrate ways in which school and community co-operation have improved community life.² Two sample cases illustrate specific ways in which the school has worked directly to improve communities.

1. Community improvement through adult education in Scottsbluff, Nebraska. Involvement of the school in community improvement was initiated in Scottsbluff when an adult education program was created to help solve its problems. The scope of the developments which ensued are indicated by the abbreviated case report below:³

Why Scottsbluff, Nebraska, embarked on a community improvement project is told in an annual report of its adult education program: "The world is full of problems: how to make a living, how to create a wholesome family life, and how to obtain serenity of character, how to build peace among ourselves and among nations." Summed up in this statement are community needs as viewed by Scottsbluff's educational leaders. Her citizens decided to meet some of these needs by organizing an adult education program.

Approaching community improvement through an adult education program has exposed Scottsbluff's citizens to a satisfying experience. Since 1951, many courses of study have been available to an increasing number of enrollees. A survey last year showed that high school and college teachers, ministers, merchants, and housewives were teaching classes in a wide variety of subjects. What an impression youngsters must have seeing their parents going to school, and doing homework. . . .

The many resources of the community have been used to make the program possible. Along with high school and college staff members, community trade members and businessmen have planned and also participated in the program. Their labors have been well rewarded: a large number of adults have qualified for college diplomas, and an even

² Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community Programs*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949; see also Jean Ogden and Jess Ogden, *These Things We Tried*, University of Virginia Extension Division, Vol. XXV (October 15, 1947), which describes a five-year experiment in community improvement; and the United States Office of Education, *Education for Better Living*, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Bulletin 1956, No. 9 (1957), which depicts the role of the school in community improvement in 15 foreign countries.

³ Grace F. Strub, "Building Better Communities—How the Schools Can Help," *The School Executive*, Vol. 76 (September, 1956), pp. 100-107.

greater number of Scottsbluff's foreign-born population have been helped meet U.S. citizenship requirements.

Going to school again opened a new social life for many of the adults—not only did the courses help them in their business lives, but they also led to stimulating friendships and hobby clubs. Many enrollees soon found themselves deeply involved in community service activities. Life was suddenly rich, exciting, and purposeful. Now there is a distinct possibility that a citizens advisory group will be organized this fall.

Co-operation among the schools and other community agencies is no longer novel in Scottsbluff—it is now taken for granted. Free publicity is given to the program by the two local radio stations and the local newspaper.

In Scottsbluff, the quest for self-improvement has come into its own. With it has come community improvement. The world's problems no longer seem insurmountable to this community—they know they can at least tackle them through education.

The key words in the Scottsbluff case study read: "Co-operation among the schools and other community agencies is no longer novel. . . ." "Schools" mean teachers; "other community agencies" refer to citizens. In other words, teachers and other citizens pooled their skill, imagination, judgment and insight to improve community living.

2. New York City schools undertake a community problem. Some might say that close working relationships between school and community are possible in relatively small communities but impractical in large, metropolitan areas. The second case study involves the largest city in the United States: ²²

We would like to add our stamp of approval to the casual exclamation of the pundit who said, "big cities, big problems." But we would also add this thought: big problems are not necessarily insolvable. Big cities are well-equipped with the most precious factor for problem solving—they have human resources. The Brooklyn, New York, School Districts 26 and 28 recognized this factor and have put it to work by organizing the Home-School-Community Partnership.

These districts have a population of 350,000 people representing a polyglot of social, economic, ethnic, and religious groups. The health, recreation, safety, housing, and delinquency conditions in this over-

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 101-102.

crowded, residential-industrial area fall short on many counts. The assistant superintendent of schools thought the time had come to do something about them, and enlisted the aid of the school principals, parent association members and teachers.

Other needs were soon spotted, such as better understanding of the school program by the lay citizens and greater recognition of the community's resources by the school people. Most urgent and most evidently lacking was the spirit of teamwork between lay and professional people.

The steering group instigating the program decided that their partnership project would be distinguished by one unique feature—all activities would revolve around the elementary schools and through the parents' association in each school. To achieve this, the leaders of the PA's were organized into district parent workshops, and a representative group of principals was organized into a district Community Relations Committee.

Since the program's inception in 1951, many activities have been planned to acquaint parents with various phases of the work done in the schools. Teachers and parents have analyzed the subject offerings, teaching methods, guidance programs, library functions, and art study. Co-operatively they have presented the two spring festivals—evenings of cultural experience and entertainment provided by many of the elementary and junior high school children.

The annual publication entitled *The Three R's Plus* has done an impressive job in getting the total education picture across to parents, social and civic groups. It ties together the many trends and tangents discussed at the workshop meetings and is liberally punctuated by human interest notes and photographs of children, parents, and teachers working and learning together.

The first steps have paved the way for subsequent projects. They have created the spirit; it is this spirit which dictates future activities. For example, each of the parents' associations now works with neighborhood leaders on one annual major project to improve local conditions. All resources, human, physical, and social, are marshalled to solve the chosen problem.

The roster of improvement activities is quite impressive since the most vital areas have been taken in hand. A district-wide clean-up campaign concentrating on covering disposal containers, clearing debris from lots, streets and yards was undertaken; another local association was able to have a dangerous area near a canal fenced off; various groups in co-operation with school personnel have provided demonstrations in food preparation and dietetics. This emphasis on

nutritious meals and effective family living has been of special value to the newly-arrived Puerto Rican families.

Two new architectural additions grace the local scene: a library and a district health center. Many other improvement endeavors have received local and national recognition and awards.

The theme of this year's workshop committee is "Strengthening Family Life," and high on its list are the vital questions of juvenile delinquency, improved school attendance, pride in personal appearance, and an increase in the number of children and adults participating in wholesome leisure-time activities.

Even a fleeting glimpse of future plans shows that the community teams need no crystal ball to see their goals: expanding parent association memberships, involving more community members in school-neighborhood projects, publishing more local neighborhood bulletins, and more teacher-parent study groups.

Well-named, this program has indeed been a partnership between the home, the school, and the community. It has afforded a magnificent opportunity for interaction: school people have gotten to know the community resources and problems; lay people have been made aware of the educational program and school problems.

It is noteworthy that the Brooklyn project was initiated by a member of the school staff, the assistant superintendent of schools. Teachers and principals were active participants in the project.

To unite school and community in a common cause. The over-all objective of developing relationships between teachers and the communities they serve, as illustrated by the two case studies, is to bring the resources of the community together in the common cause of improved education and better communities. This concern rests upon the following premises: (a) The school is in a central position to mobilize leadership and resources for community improvement programs; (b) Educational problems as well as those related to health, cultural, economic, industrial, scientific, and political affairs must be faced at the neighborhood and community levels; (c) All communities possess the resources necessary to solve their problems through co-ordination; (d) The school must be concerned with the forces and conditions that affect the lives of pupils; and (e) The teacher, an educated, cultured, and professional person, brings added intellectual resources to a community and shares a responsibility along with other citizens to improve life in the here and now as well as in the future.

Utilizing community resources to improve education. A fourth concern that has developed during the last 25 years relates to the use that can be made of community resources to enrich and improve the educational program of the school. The community in which pupils live is aptly called a laboratory for learning. This conception is important to the teacher for at least three reasons. First, the good teacher must know and be able to evaluate the environmental influences impinging upon his pupils if he is to make the most of the laws of learning. Second, the good teacher utilizes the resources of the community, both physical and human, in the educational program.⁴ Third, close co-operation between school and community in the educational process is imperative. Maurice F. Seay has summarized the reasons teachers must know the community in these words: ⁵

In addition to knowing children and the subject matter to be taught, teachers of schools which emphasize community resources must know the interests and the customs of the people whom they serve, their problems, and how they make a living. They must know the organizations and methods of the other public services of the community. They must know how the problems of their patrons and the agencies of the community relate to problems and agencies elsewhere in the state, in the nation, and in the world. Above all, they must know how to study a local community, so as to identify its problems and resources.

Numerous values are derived by the teacher who is a student of the community. As a result of community study, the teacher is able (1) to take cognizance of environmental influences while teaching; (2) to obtain instructional aids and materials from the community; (3) to relate subject matter to experiences of pupils; (4) to provide effective guidance to pupils; (5) to serve as an effective public relations agent for the schools; and (6) to work with community groups interested in the improvement of a community living. An excellent outline for study of a community may be found in the Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the American Associa-

⁴ See Fred A. Sloan, Jr., "Helping Parents to Help Their Children," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 3 (March, 1960), pp. 49-50.

⁵ National Society for the Study of Education, *American Education in the Postwar Period* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945), Pt. 1, p. 226. Copyright 1945 by the University of Chicago.

tion of School Administrators.⁶

The teacher who is a student of his community will work closely with agencies in fields such as children's welfare, social work, law enforcement, youth activities, public health, and organized recreation. He will remain in touch with lay groups such as the PTA, civic and service clubs, and women's organizations. His teaching will include organized field trips, and he will bring community resources into the classroom. The final result will be better education for boys and girls.

DIFFERENCES IN COMMUNITIES

A community may be defined as "the concentration of interests and activities of a people in a given area, the area being large enough to provide institutions, agencies, and services adequate to satisfy most of the needs of the people living there."⁷ But there is also a psychological dimension of a community. It may be thought of as "involving devotion to a certain place, or to common interests or ideals which produce in people an interest in and a sense of belonging to a locality or to an area."⁸ The community is a place, people, and institutions.

It is difficult to generalize with regard to the teacher's role in the community. Communities differ, as do individuals. A description of two communities will illustrate the point.⁹

A Quiet, Stable Town

"Quaint" is the word for Lewiston.

Location at the juncture of three small rivers where they flow out of the hills west of the Balcones Fault line gives the town and its surrounding area much of their unique character. The town itself is well supplied with water from the loose alluvial soil in the river valleys; but the surrounding area is largely chalk hills covered with cedar scrub and of little value except for patches along the streams. Cattle, sheep,

⁶ American Association of School Administrators, *Educational Administration in a Changing Community* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1959), pp. 152-157.

⁷ Clyde B. Moore and William E. Cole, *Sociology in Educational Practice* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952), p. 165.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 165.

⁹ Harry Estill Moore, *Nine Help Themselves* (Austin, Tex.: Southwestern Co-operative Program in Educational Administration, July, 1955), pp. 125, 213.

and goats graze on the poorer, more arid lands of the county. The picturesque scenery has been exploited through the establishment of a number of camps where youth are brought in the summer, which form an important part of the economic life of the town. Warm sulphur springs are the basis of appeal to health seekers.

A large metal monument of a dinosaur stands above the sulphur-water fountain, advertising the town's two principal claims to fame: the health facilities and the discovery nearby of fossilized dinosaur tracks along one of the rivers.

Local people are proud of their quiet little health resort and show little inclination to make radical changes. When a railroad proposed, years ago, to build a line through the town, the residents were successful in their opposition. They argued that such an innovation would destroy their peace and quiet.

Few changes have occurred in Lewiston over the years. Most of the people are evidently comfortable and satisfied. The power structure is probably quite visible and stable.

Note the contrasts between Lewiston and the fast-growing boom city of Grover which is described below:

A Boom City

Grover is made-to-order for Texas-style boasting. Rising from the flat prairies near the Gulf of Mexico, it has mushroomed from a sleepy hamlet on the shores of a meandering bayou at the turn of the century to a bustling, thriving young industrial giant of some 50,000 population in little more than four decades. Exact population figures are lacking because "Everytime you look away, some real estate man runs in and plants 500 or 1,000 new homes."

It was only back in 1897 that citizens of the village erected the first schoolhouse by public subscription and built furniture by volunteer labor to provide a place for teaching 24 youngsters of school age. Money left over from the "schoolhouse pot" was used to pay the one teacher; at the rate of \$30.00 per month. This was also the going wage for a fair-to-middling cow hand at the time.

Both Lewiston and Grover are fast becoming vestigial remains of an agrarian society. A prominent sociologist tells why:¹⁰

¹⁰ Scott Greer, "Order and Change in Metropolitan Society," paper prepared for the Conference on Educational Policy in Metropolitan Society sponsored by the University Council on Educational Administration, Northwestern University, November 10-12, 1958 (mimeographed).

America is a nation of mushrooming metropolitan areas and dying small towns. Across the countryside, the shift in the human landscape is almost momentarily visible. The farming areas grow increasingly prairielike, as the density of human population dwindles and the size of holdings increases; as the small towns become ghost towns, or else assume the shapes of miniature metropolises; the small cities become urban areas, and the great metropolitan areas expand until they begin to form vast urban regions stretching from Virginia to Maine, from southern Wisconsin to Indiana, and down two hundred miles of California coast.

The trend described by Greer has been labeled "megalopolis" by geographers and "conurbation" by sociologists. The trend has enhanced the importance of medium-to-large cities in the United States and of wealthy, sophisticated suburban sections such as Chicago's North Shore and New York's Westchester County. In view of the Lewistons and the Grovers, and of megalopolis, the generalization that communities differ stands out in bold relief.

Despite community differences, a few generalizations may be made with regard to roles teachers play in the community. In general, the higher the educational level of the people of a community, the greater the esteem for education and teachers. Second, the freedom of teachers seems to be related to the size of the community; the larger the community, the greater the freedom. Third, there seem to be important sectional differences with regard to freedom of teachers. Personal observations, though research evidence to validate this conclusion is not available, indicate that teachers in the Northeast enjoy more freedom than do those in other sections of the nation. Teachers in the Middle West, the Far West, the Border States and the South, in this order, enjoy lesser amounts of personal freedom.

ROLES OF THE TEACHER IN COMMUNITY LIFE

The number and types of specialized roles played by teachers in community life vary with the communities and the individualities of teachers.¹¹ It is possible, however, to identify some of the major ways in which teachers relate themselves to their communities both as citizens and professional people. Figure 20 suggests in

¹¹ Roles of the teacher in the classroom were presented in Ch. 9. Attention is focused here on roles of the teacher in the community.

chart form those which have received the greatest amount of recognition.

Participant in Community Affairs

Educators, indeed people in general, seem to be in general agreement that teachers should take an active part in community affairs. They are agreed that teachers should participate in community life for good reasons which include the following: (1) Teachers are among the better educated people in the community

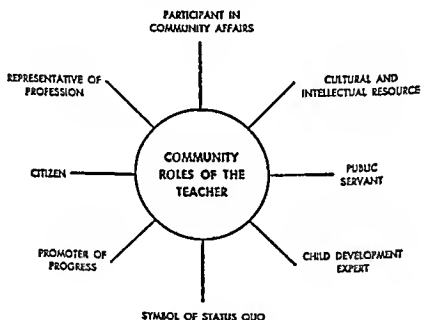


FIGURE 20.

ROLES OF THE TEACHER IN THE COMMUNITY

and therefore have excellent qualifications for participating in community activities; (2) Participation in community activities enhances a teacher's understanding of the environment of his pupils; (3) Education is a social function, paid for by society, and society therefore has a call upon the time and efforts of its agents; (4) The public gains a better understanding of and appreciation for teachers and education if teachers are able participants in community activities; and (5) Able young people in the community are apt to look with more favor upon the teaching profession if its members are active participants in community life.

While teachers should participate in community life, good

judgment must be used by them in the allocation of their time. There is a limit to what a person can do in the way of community participation. But is this a discussion of what is, or what ought to be? The facts indicate that instead of cautioning future teachers about overparticipation one should exhort them to greater participation. A recent study noted that the majority of first-year teachers in the sample did not "join a church, a civic club, or a social group in the community where they did their first teaching. Furthermore almost two-thirds of the first-year teachers reporting were not registered to vote in the communities where they taught."¹²

Cultural and Intellectual Resource

The teacher is a cultural and intellectual resource of the community in which he teaches. He is called on by the community to give speeches, to appear on radio and television programs, to serve on committees, and to advise on various matters. The teacher who possesses special talents in fields such as music or art, the teacher who has highly developed intellectual interests in literature, history, science, or vocational fields, and the teacher with special hobbies are in demand as resource personnel for community groups. To sum up, "A teacher, by education, experience, and by reason of intelligence, should play an active role in community affairs."¹³

Public Servant

The teacher is a public servant in the sense that he is employed by the public and is to some extent subject to sanctions of society. The teacher is employed by a local school board, acts for the people and the state, and is paid a salary from tax funds collected from the people he serves.

As a public servant, the teacher is a describer and interpreter of society whose function is to transmit the culture. The teacher serves as a guide to students as they attempt to acquire information and skills. Due cognizance is taken of the traditions of the

¹² Sam M. Lambert, "Beginning Teachers and Their Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. III, No. 4 (December, 1956), p. 350.

¹³ Clayton E. Rose, "Person to Person," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 2 (February, 1960), p. 20.

school and the "way things are done here."

One may get the idea from what has been said that the body politic dominates the behavior, ideas, and social life of the teacher. That the teacher, as a public servant, is continually under public scrutiny cannot be denied. However, no implication is intended that the teacher must be a docile conformist because he is employed in an institution society has established to educate the young. Furthermore, the teacher must never become a passive instrument to be manipulated by those at the top of the power structure.

Child Development Expert

The teacher plays a role that is based upon his education and competencies. He is an expert in child development. The state has attested to his competencies as a person who understands children and youth. To assure minimum qualifications, the state has established certification standards which a teacher must meet before he can receive a license to practice his profession. And like a physician, he must be licensed before he can practice—before he can accept employment as a teacher.

Parents think nothing of seeking out teachers at P.T.A. meetings, or even at social gatherings, to obtain their advice about how to handle problems with their children. Parents often seek advice from teachers who are not teaching their children.

Knowledge derived from education and experience makes it possible for the teacher to serve as an adviser to parents. But he must observe the precautions of diplomacy and discretion at all times. Too much advice, or the wrong advice, can damage the reputation of both the teacher and his school. He must play his role of expert with regard to children with mature judgment, professional precision, and reasonable success.

Symbol of Status Quo

Communities and people resist change. As a creature of the community, and as a human being, teachers are cast in the role of guardians of the *status quo*. Therein lies a pressing dilemma. Is the teacher a conservator of the past, or must he be a leader for change? Each teacher has to answer the question for himself. But regardless of how he answers the question, he must be aware of

the fact that society has placed him in the role of a maintainer of the *status quo*.

The source of this role of the teacher is to be found in the phenomenon known as cultural lags of society, but education has developed many of its own. Some examples are textbooks and rigid courses of study slavishly followed, formalistic and antiquated curricular programs, and the acquiescence of some educational "leaders" in the face of demands by petty politicians. Be that as it may, the teacher does play the role of maintainer of the *status quo*.

Promoter of Progress

The teacher, while a conservator of the past, is also cast in the role of a promoter of progress. He transmutes as well as transmits the culture. He is a promoter of progress in that he must keep up with innovations and new knowledge germane to his teaching field.

Social change is inevitable. As a leader in community activities, it is likewise inevitable that the teacher is placed in the position from time to time of being a promoter of progress in the community as well as in his profession.

It can be said without fear of contradiction that teachers function in incompatible roles—as maintainers of *status quo* and as promoters of progress. The teacher pondering the question of which role will predominate would do well to reflect upon these words of Wasserman:¹⁴

No social system is able to endure unless it remains forever susceptible to change, prepared at all times to modify the patterns of its institutions to conform with the demands of fresh ideas, new technics, altered circumstances. It is this adjustment that we have come to call progress. No form of social organization, whatever its character, has proved valid for all time; only constant amendment has enabled those which exist today to survive.

Numerous additional roles of the teacher could be presented. For example, the teacher is sometimes regarded as a sociological

¹⁴ Louis Wasserman, *Modern Political Philosophies* (Philadelphia: The Blakiston Company, 1945), p. 1. Copyright by and used with the permission of the Association Press.

stranger, a surrogate of middle-class morality, a model for the young, and as an idealist. It will suffice to say that teachers play many roles, some of which are contradictory to others. For this reason, and others, teachers must be mature enough to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty.

The Teacher as Citizen

What does the word *citizen* mean? The dictionary definition of the term is of little help: "Person who by birth or by choice is a member of a state or nation." Citizenship, in the dictionary sense, is automatic in the United States. According to Section I, Article 14 of the Constitution of the United States: "All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside."

The term *citizen* has an active dimension that should be emphasized. Citizenship means *doing* something as well as being something. Among the specific privileges and duties of citizenship as listed by the Constitution are suffrage, holding political office, paying taxes, serving in the armed forces, obeying law, and serving on juries.

Citizenship records of teachers need to be improved. There is often a sharp contrast in the being and doing aspects of citizenship, as an examination of the citizenship records of teachers will show. A study of voting habits of social studies teachers in a large city in the Middle West found that only 65 per cent of those teachers who were registered actually voted in 10 elections over a four-year period.¹⁵ Not all social studies teachers in the city were registered. In a Southern city, it was found that teachers voted with more frequency than the general public but that "their registration and voting were below those of other professional groups."¹⁶

Teachers' records with regard to other obligations of citizenship are in need of improvement. In most states, teachers are exempt from jury duty. Few teachers serve in legislative bodies.

¹⁵ Miller R. Collings and Stanley E. Dimond, "Do Social Studies Teachers Vote?" *Social Education*, Vol. 14 (October, 1950), p. 207.

¹⁶ Lindley J. Stiles, ed., *The Teacher's Role in American Society*, Fourteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 122.

Too many teachers shun political debate and open discussions of political affairs. Too often, teachers conventions at the local, state, and national levels give inadequate attention to matters concerning the body politic.

Numerous reasons are advanced to explain the relatively poor citizenship record of teachers. Most of these reasons are, in fact, rationalizations when examined objectively. The so-called double standard of conduct for teachers and other citizens is a good example. Too frequently, the rigid double standard exists in the mind of the teacher more than in actual fact. Research reported by Terrien sheds light on the matter. He found that 70 per cent of the teachers sampled in his study "believed in some degree that the public expected some sort of different or better conduct from the teaching group than is expected of other groups."¹⁷ In speaking of teachers' political behavior, a sensitive area, Terrien concluded that: "Quite a number of the teachers appeared . . . to be upholding a principle which they had no desire to test." Apparently some teachers think they are expected to behave in a certain way, but they are not anxious really to find out whether or not their suppositions are true. Such teachers should be reminded of John Stuart Mill's admonition in his classic *Essay on Representative Government*, "The rights and interests of each or any person are only secure from being disregarded when the person interested is himself able and habitually disposed to stand up for them."

Citizenship rights and responsibilities of teachers. The teacher has special citizenship responsibilities. He is better educated than the general public; he therefore has better-than-average qualifications for citizenship responsibilities. The public looks to the schools for citizenship education of the young; it follows that the teacher must be an active citizen if he is to teach citizenship to others. Furthermore, according to the National Education Association, ethics place citizenship demands upon teachers. The Third Principle, Section 2, of the NEA Code of Ethics provides that a teacher will: "Perform the duties of citizenship and participate in community activities with due consideration for his obligations to his students, his family, and himself."

The ethical teacher discharges the responsibilities inherent in

¹⁷ Frederic W. Terrien, "The Occupational Roles of Teachers," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 29 (September, 1955), p. 18.

good citizenship. He believes in the *doing* as well as the being phase of citizenship. As a citizen, the teacher: (a) votes—in fact he may even campaign for his candidate outside the school; (b) runs for office if he chooses to do so; (c) serves on juries when asked to do so; (d) is an effective and intelligent leader and follower in worthwhile civic projects; (e) exemplifies in his life a profound belief in the inherent dignity and inalienable rights of each individual; (f) exercises his right of freedom of thought, religion, and peaceful assembly; and (g) strives to understand the fundamental principles underlying democracy and commits himself to a democratic life in the community and in the classroom.

Representative of a Profession

The teacher represents the profession in the community in many important respects. He is regarded by people who know him as a teacher, whether he is in church, a civic club meeting, a ball game, or a social gathering. He therefore, in a sense, represents the teaching profession at all times.

Unfortunately, educational literature is often negative in the treatment of the teacher's role as a professional person in the community. Teachers and prospective teachers are told in recent books on education that "the teacher is treated with cool snobbery by other professional groups." Or "Today's teacher may be thought to be a prototype of the middle class." Or "Another commonly held prejudice is that the teacher is more likely to be neurotic than the rest of the adult population." Contrast the foregoing statements by writers of textbooks for teachers with the thought expressed by a leader of national stature in the field of business. George Romney, President of American Motors Corporation said: "It is my personal view that while much attention has been devoted with much justified sympathy to teaching as the 'underdog profession' the fundamental status of teachers is better than they themselves believe it is."¹⁸ It is time that detrimental and inaccurate talk in the profession be supplanted with discussions of teaching as a prestige position that enables teachers to enjoy social approbation.

The teacher is a member of a socially important, dignified, and

¹⁸ Margaret Irminger, "What the Speakers Said," *The School Administrator*, Vol. 17, No. 7 (March 15, 1960), p. 3.

noble profession. Society bestows upon those teachers who earn it high status. But wholesome self-esteem must precede public acclaim.

The teacher should bear in mind that people are conscious of the fact when they meet him in the community that he is a teacher. Furthermore, he should realize that the profession is judged by his behavior. His responsibility as a representative of the profession in the community is great.

SUMMARY

Teachers are closely associated with their communities. The public ownership of schools and the integral relationship between education and social progress give teachers a high visibility rating. Consequently, citizens develop definite attitudes toward teachers.

From the fifth century B.C. when the Sophists came to be regarded as pedagogues until today, various stereotypes of teachers have existed. In many instances, the stereotypes reflected ridicule and derision. Now, however, teachers find that social approbation and esteem are bestowed upon them because they are regarded as intellectual leaders in a world that places high value upon academic achievements.

The close relationship between schools and community life makes it necessary for teachers to study communities generally as well as individually. Knowledge of social factors in the area served by the school is necessary for effective teaching to be done. Then, too, education is expected to contribute to the solution of community problems and enhances each person's chances of attaining the "good life."

Several specialized roles are assigned to the teacher—participant in community activities, cultural and intellectual resource, public servant, expert in child development, symbol of *status quo*, and promoter of progress.

The teacher is a citizen although his record in this role is in need of improvement. Research reports indicate that teachers do not vote, hold political office, serve on juries, or promote open discussion of political affairs as much as they should.

A teacher is bound by professional ethics as well as the obligations inherent in citizenship to vote; run for office if he chooses to do so; exercise his right of freedom of thought, religion, and

peaceful assembly; and exemplify an abiding commitment to democracy in his daily life. Citizenship rights and responsibilities are the same for teachers as for other members of the community.

The teacher is regarded as a representative of the profession in the community. People think of him as a teacher just as they think of the physician as a doctor and the attorney as a lawyer, even though they encounter him in the grocery store, in church, or in some other non-professional relationship. The teacher must realize that people judge the profession by his behavior. He is a representative of the profession.

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THE TEACHER
AMONG ADULTS

It is sometimes said that a teacher spends most of his time in a child's world. This statement is not really true. The teacher's professional assignment brings him into contact with other adults regularly and in numerous ways. A variety of activities bring teachers together with their colleagues. Some of the associations are formal and official; others are casual and self-initiated.

The human relationships that prevail between the teacher and other members of the staff are significant to the success of the total educational enterprise and, to some extent, to the happiness and effectiveness of the teacher himself. These are shaped as teachers work with each other—in faculty meetings, on committee assignments, through curriculum development projects, in work related to extra-curricular activities, and on other professional assignments. Teaching, at least in its nonclassroom aspects, involves considerable teamwork with colleagues, the principal, supervisors and consultants, the superintendent of schools, and other educational personnel in teacher organizations.

The responsibilities of the teacher as a professional person also transcend the boundaries of the school itself. He carries on a joint enterprise which involves reporting pupil progress, home visitation, and working with parents in grade or course-group meetings and through the local, state, and national structure of the Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Teachers have opportunities for professional contacts with adults other than parents. Adult education programs involve some teachers in their instruction. Then, too, teachers are often placed in association with adults through school-sponsored activities—including plays, athletic events, and music festivals. Community organizations of various types often benefit from leadership provided by teachers.

Figure 21 illustrates some of the more important contacts the

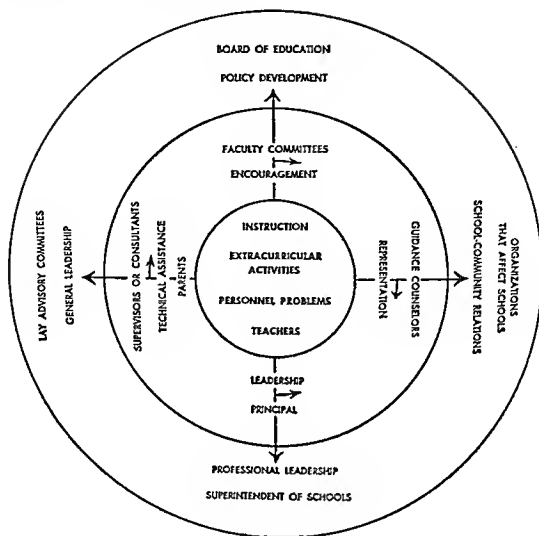


FIGURE 21.

TEACHERS' CONTACTS WITH OTHER ADULTS

teacher has with other adults—teachers, supervisors, administrators, board of education members, parents, and others. All the categories of people indicated in the concentric circles maintain a functional relationship to each other. The primary role of each is shown by the circle; secondary functions are indicated by the arrows.

ASSOCIATION WITH PROFESSIONAL COLLEAGUES

Association with professional colleagues is essential to successful teaching. In fact, poor relationships with fellow teachers, supervisors, or administrators are one cause of teacher failure. For this

reason, the development of wholesome and effective human relations is emphasized in the professional aspects of the teacher's preparation.

The prospective teacher may remember sensing the quality of interpersonal relationships that prevailed among faculty members in the high school he attended. Was Miss X unduly upset because her history class was late? Was the real reason that they had been getting their pictures made for the yearbook which was under Miss Y's supervision? Did teachers seem to enjoy visiting together? Were teachers anxious to assist each other? Were teachers and administrators cordial? These are some of the questions one raises when he attempts to identify the quality of human relationships that prevail among the professional staff of a school system.

Co-operation with Other Teachers

Good teachers continually pool their experiences and knowledge in an effort to help each other. Together they plan the curriculum, develop resource units, locate instructional aids, develop evaluation instruments, and exchange professional knowledge about their problems. They work together in faculty meetings, on committees, and in planning special events. Friendships often develop through such teamwork that lead to the sharing of personal confidences. Good teachers support each other in the event of criticism by lay citizens or pupils.

Since teachers pursue common purposes with a minimum of competitive interests common to other professional fields, harmonious relationships should prevail. Such is not always the case, however. In the event of friction, the teachers involved should remember that they are bound by their professional ethics to exemplify appropriate behavior toward each other. For example, the following practices were considered unethical by about 90 per cent or more of the teachers responding to a study conducted by the NEA:¹

- (1) To permit pupils to make derogatory remarks about other teachers;
- (2) To fail to defend members of the profession when they

¹ National Education Association, *Teachers' Opinions on Ethics in the Teaching Profession* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, September, 1950), pp. 68-70, and also Ch. 9 for the section of the NEA Code of Ethics which deals with professional relationships among teachers.

are unjustly attacked; (3) To publicly censure or to disclose to unauthorized persons evidence of unprofessional or immoral conduct and inefficiency within the profession; (4) To make derogatory remarks about the teaching profession; (5) To disclose to unauthorized persons official correspondence or conversation among teachers.

It should be remembered at all times that many of a teacher's actions in school affect other teachers. The claims one teacher makes on the time of pupils may infringe on the time they need to study other subjects. The use of instructional materials and equipment may take them away from others when needed. Monopoly of building facilities may work hardships on associates whose work requires the same facilities. These are examples of how one teacher's work may impinge upon that of other teachers. On the other hand, if a teacher is doing a good job, his colleagues profit from the high public esteem it generates for teachers and perhaps from an increased willingness of the public to support their schools.

A beginning teacher can make a significant contribution to the educational program of a school. He is full of energy, enthusiastic about his new work, and if his preparation has been good he possesses the latest ideas and knowledge about teaching methods. The new teacher may, however, confront a colleague or two who take a "we tried that 40 years ago" attitude. Occasionally an experienced teacher may counsel the beginner to "take it easy, new ideas are not welcome here." Such experiences should not discourage the beginner or dim his enthusiasm for expressing his own individuality and trying out his own ideas in teaching. The majority of a teaching staff will greet new educational ideas with ready acceptance, provided they are presented appropriately and show promise of proving sound.

The new teacher should realize that being personally acceptable helps to get one's ideas received favorably. He should avoid the "this is the way my professor said it should be done" approach. His attitude toward experienced teachers should be one of respect based upon the realization that he can probably learn a great deal from them. But he should retain his enthusiasm for his work and an inquiring mind toward it.

Teacher-Principal Relationships

Teachers and their principals are members of the same professional team. The principal is the leader of the faculty. While he has authority in the administrative sense, he will, if competent, exercise it in a democratic fashion. Teachers should comprehend the fact that they must be willing to share authority and responsibility with administrators. Responsible participation in policy making is a professional obligation of every teacher. Too often "leaders are heard to say that people with whom they work do not want to participate in making decisions. School principals sometimes comment that teachers do not use freedom when it is available, that they would rather be told what to do and how to do it."² Arthur H. Rice, reporting on a discussion at the convention of the American Association of School Administrators, pointed up the fact that democratic administration is a hard taskmaster for teachers as well as principals and superintendents:³

A bomb was thrown in the classroom teachers' camp by accusations from the school superintendent that classroom teachers, although they want to have a voice in policy making are, in many instances, unwilling to invest time in fact finding, study, and discussions that are essential to the solution of school and faculty problems. Teachers, especially those who are married, want to rush home as soon as classes are dismissed. . . .

One fundamental quality characterizes teacher-principal relationships: teachers, by and large, enjoy a considerable amount of freedom and autonomy in their classrooms. Occasionally some complain that they would like to change their teaching procedures but that the principal will not permit it. Usually such assertions are rationalizations for their own unwillingness to change. In a majority of the schools in America, the teacher functions as a professional person practicing the art of teaching as his knowledge and wisdom dictate.

Freedom must be accompanied by responsibility. The relative

² Margaret Lindsey and Ernest Schwarcz, "Leadership and Human Values," *NEA Journal* (March, 1960), p. 62.

³ Arthur H. Rice, "Can Teachers Share Administrative Responsibility?" *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 65, No. 3 (March, 1960), p. 58. Copyright 1960, The Modern Hospital Publishing Co., Inc., Chicago. All rights reserved.

absence of administrative controls over teaching methods is based upon the administrator's confidence in the professional ability and attitude of the teacher. The teacher maintains such confidence by exercising freedom in a mature and professionally responsible manner.

Of particular value to the new teacher is the role of the principal as supervisor. Increasingly, emphasis is being placed upon the necessity of the principal's serving the teaching staff in a supervisory capacity. It is generally agreed that the typical principal spends too much time on budgets and buildings and not enough time with the curriculum and children. The teacher can help to correct this imbalance by availing himself of the supervisory skill of the principal by inviting him into the classroom to observe and to counsel.

Assistance from Supervisors and Consultants

Better school systems employ staff specialists known as supervisors or, in certain types of positions, as consultants.⁴ The supervisor or consultant is usually a person who enjoyed outstanding success as a teacher and then specialized through advanced study in guiding the work of others. Typically, he is regarded as an expert in human relations as well as in some special educational field.

Supervisors and consultants assist teachers in a variety of ways. They work on problems that pertain only to one field. For example, a teacher may call on the supervisor for assistance to improve his teaching ability in the field of reading. Another teacher may be strong in the teaching of reading but ask help from a specialist to learn better how to teach number concepts to children. Supervisors also assist teachers in groups when they are working on common problems, in committee or faculty meetings, and preschool workshops. They may relieve the teacher of certain responsibilities as when the guidance counselor provides information to students about various occupations.

The supervisor is not an administrator; he is a staff officer. He does not exercise line authority over teachers in their classroom work, although he may advise with principals about a teacher's work. The primary task of supervision is that of stimulating and

⁴ Included in this group are counselors, psychologists, school nurses, school social workers, speech and hearing specialists, visiting teachers, directors of instruction, curriculum co-ordinators, and consultants in fields such as reading and arithmetic.

aiding teachers to improve and of assisting teachers to combine their efforts and thus develop better educational programs. The supervisor is a valuable assistant to the teacher, new or experienced. It is his assignment to help, and he is expert in doing so. The good teacher avails himself of the assistance available through supervisors and consultants.

Leadership from the Superintendent

The superintendent of schools is the chief administrative official of the school system and the executive officer of the board of education. In larger school districts, particularly, only limited contact between teachers and the superintendent may be possible. Under such circumstances, close acquaintance is difficult; yet the superintendent renders a vital service to teachers and influences, by his leadership, the whole educational program of the school system.

Teachers typically share with the superintendent of schools certain authority and responsibilities. Policy development is a co-operative process in the better schools. To accomplish this objective, teachers serve on advisory committees to the superintendent. Such councils participate in the development of recommendations which the superintendent makes to the board of education for adoption as policies. In many school systems, teachers assist also with the development of personnel policies, the reorganization of curriculums, the planning of new school buildings, and the development of the budget. Teachers selected by their colleagues as representatives on various committees have usually won high status by their success in teaching, soundness of ideas, willingness to work for the common good, and general professional leadership.

Participation in Professional Organizations

State education associations employ certain full-time personnel to carry on their work. National organizations, such as the NEA, likewise maintain full-time professional staffs. Other national, state and local organizations of interest to teachers have professional personnel with whom teachers sometimes come into contact. Yet the officers and committees of these bodies are composed of members of the profession who carry on the major share of the activities of each. Ample opportunity exists for class-

room teachers to work with these colleagues on worthwhile ventures. As they do, they not only gain in knowledge of their profession, but they improve and extend their own skill in human relations and in leadership.

It is important, also, for teachers, particularly those who are beginners, to confer with their representatives in teacher organizations. Such advice is pertinent for two reasons. First, the teacher stands to learn something. These people in the various associations are usually well-informed, able people of broad educational experience. Second, as representatives of teachers, these officials need to know the problems teachers are encountering and which goals are of importance to the rank and file of the profession.

THE TEACHER-PARENT TEAM

In a real sense, the teacher and parent comprise a team to educate the child. Together they share common concerns; together they work to aid given pupils; together they must co-operate if their mission is to be successful. Contact with individual parents is maintained by the teacher through the reports he makes on the progress of pupils. He may also carry out home visitations. He also associates with parents in groups through participation in "grade level" meetings and work in the official Parent-Teacher Association.

The teacher's work with parents should be regarded as an integral part of his teaching responsibility. Although the school has been assigned increasingly wider duties in childhood education, two facts should be kept in mind. First, modern education demands close co-operation between home and school. Second, some teachers have a tendency to look upon parents as interlopers in the school program. Such is not the case. Parents voluntarily tax themselves to support the public schools. For these reasons the teacher should look upon the interests of parents as genuine and natural and accept them as co-workers who have objectives that are identical to those of the teacher—the best education possible for all pupils in the school.

Reporting Pupil Progress

Teachers report pupil progress to parents in at least two important ways. The most common way is through a report card. It is usual

[Text continued on p. 303.]

Marking Symbols		Social Habits	
S	Means satisfactory progress	Is polite	Marking Periods 1 2 3 4
N	Means needing improvement	Follows group rules	
		Follows school rules	
		Follows safety rules	
		Takes care of school property and materials	
		Is generally well behaved	
		Work Habits	
		Follows directions	
		Can work alone	
		Tries before asking for help	
		Completes work	
		Endeavors to do next work	

Marking Symbols		Marking Periods	
1	Outstanding 95-100	1	Marking Periods 1 2 3 4
2	Good 85-94	2	
3	Satisfactory 75-84	3	
4	Doubtful 70-74	4	
5	Failing below 70		
Languages Area			
Reading			
Below Grade Level			
At Grade Level			
Above Grade Level			
English			
Spelling			
Handwriting			
Arithmetic			
Music			
Art			

PRIMARY SCHOOL REPORT FORM

Two pages of the report card used for grades 1 and 2 in the Glen Cove Public Schools, Glen Cove, New York. On the back page of this form is a statement of the purpose of this report card: first, to inform parents of the quality of work being done by a child and to indicate progress; secondly, to make it possible for the school and home to work together effectively. This written report is supplemented by parent-teacher conferences.

Reproduced with the permission of Robert M. O'Kane, Superintendent of Schools, Glen Cove, New York.

practice for a report card to be sent home to parents every four or six weeks. Unfortunately, the report card often leaves many questions of parents unanswered. Parents may not be sure what a report card actually means. For example, many report cards include items such as co-operation, effort, self-control, and promptness. Marks assigned may be A, B, C, D's, or E for excellent, S for satisfactory, and N for needs improvement. These terms are not clearly understood by many parents. Even marks for academic subjects vary from school to school. Furthermore, the subject matter or skills evaluated may vary greatly. In some schools numerical marks are used while in others some scheme of letters is employed. The teacher has a responsibility to do his best to see that parents understand the report card and marks that are used.

Reporting to parents is a complicated undertaking and varies from school to school. A *New York Times* study of report cards in 40 school systems in the New York area showed tremendous variations in practice. Report cards ranged from "a single file-size paper to a document that looks like a study in character analysis."⁶ It is generally agreed, as this study reflects, that report cards are more complex now than they were a generation ago. The reason is that teachers are making greater efforts to transmit all pertinent information on pupil progress to parents in terms which can be understood.

A practice that is gaining favor in elementary schools, the second common way in which teachers report to parents, is what has come to be known as parent conferences. These are face-to-face sessions between teacher and parents in which the progress of a pupil is reported and discussed. To prepare for such conferences the teacher usually keeps a folder containing sample work of the student, as well as a cumulative record of test scores and other pertinent facts. Conferences are ordinarily scheduled once each semester although in some schools they are scheduled every six or eight weeks. Most conferences are held in the classroom during after-school hours. Some schools, however, provide substitute teachers to permit conferences to be scheduled during school hours. In some schools both devices for reporting to parents are employed. A report card is sent home to each

⁶ *New York Times* (November 18, 1957), p. C33.

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There are many factors which determine the quality of a student's work. A complete list of these factors would be too long to present here and would tend to vary with the nature of the subject.

To give students and parents a more adequate judgment of the quality of student achievement, the faculty of the Bronxville Senior School has adopted a five point scale:

Work will be described as

- A. Excellent
- B. Good
- C. Average
- D. Passing
- E. Failing

A student whose work is deficient because of absence may receive no "incomplete". When the student's work has been completed, he will receive one of the above ratings.

Since prompt and regular attendance is a vital factor in a student's success, the attendance report is included.

Close contact between home and school is highly desirable. If a student's work is unsatisfactory, the parents are urged to get in touch with the school. Appointments with the teachers may be made through the senior school office. Appointments with the secretaries should be made through their secretaries.

SIGNATURE OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN

 Signature

 Date

 Conf. Period

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

REPORT OF PROGRESS 19 -19

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th
English												
History												
Science												
Mathematics												
French												
Spanish												
Latin												
Physical Education												

A check in the small square indicates that the teacher has enclosed a "moment card" in this pocket on the next page. The fact that a card is not enclosed does not necessarily reflect unfavorably or unfavorably upon a student's work. Every teacher is interested in meeting with parents who would like a conference. Conferences may be arranged through the principal's office.

RECORD OF HALF-DAY ABSENCE AND TARDY

PERIOD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
ABSENT												
TARDY												

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL REPORT FORM

Two pages from a new report form developed by a teachers' committee for use in the Bronxville (New York) Senior School. One page of this form has a pocket in which teachers may enclose "comment cards."

Reproduced with the permission of Dr. Louis Braun, Superintendent of the Bronxville Public Schools.

practice for a report card to be sent home to parents every four or six weeks. Unfortunately, the report card often leaves many questions of parents unanswered. Parents may not be sure what a report card actually means. For example, many report cards include items such as co-operation, effort, self-control, and promptness. Marks assigned may be A, B, C, D's, or E for excellent, S for satisfactory, and N for needs improvement. These terms are not clearly understood by many parents. Even marks for academic subjects vary from school to school. Furthermore, the subject matter or skills evaluated may vary greatly. In some schools numerical marks are used while in others some scheme of letters is employed. The teacher has a responsibility to do his best to see that parents understand the report card and marks that are used.

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⁶ *New York Times* (November 18, 1957), p. C33.

parent and at-school conferences are scheduled periodically.

Whatever procedure is followed to report the pupil's progress to his parents, it is imperative that it give the information desired by the recipient. To achieve this goal, teachers, administrators, and parents often co-operate in designing a reporting plan. This is a commendable practice and should be participated in with enthusiasm by the teacher.

Home Visitation

Home visits by the teacher serve two vital purposes. First, they enhance the teacher's knowledge of the home background, family attitudes and values, as well as neighborhood environment, of each pupil. This type of information is indispensable to good teaching. A second objective served by home visits is that of establishing friendly relationships which are necessary for effective co-operation between teachers and parents.

Home visitation by teachers is not emphasized as much by schools as it was a decade or more ago. In fact, the practice is passé in urban schools. Many educators feel that this is an unfortunate development. In no way other than by visits to the home may the teacher gain information and establish relationships of such inestimable value to both parent and teacher. Then, too, most pupils are happy to know that teachers are sufficiently interested in them to visit their home. The teacher has a very valuable procedure at his disposal—the home visit—if he has the energy and interest to follow it.

Grade or Class Group Meetings for Parents

It is common practice for schools to hold meetings of all the parents of pupils in given grade or class groups. In the elementary schools these meetings are called "grade level meetings," and in high school they are often known as "back-to-school" nights. Both are designed to serve the same purpose—that of helping the parent to gain a better understanding of his child's educational development and of the school's program.

The meetings are usually held early in the school term. Parents are invited to the school to hear teachers explain the mental, social, and physical characteristics as well as the interest patterns of children or youth at the particular grade level. Parents are

grouped according to the grade level of their child. For example, the third graders' parents, as a group, would hear third-grade teachers discuss the various characteristics of 8-year-olds. In addition to this type of information, parents are made acquainted with the schedule of their youngster. In the case of the "back-to-school" night, parents actually run through an abbreviated version of the same schedule their son or daughter follows as they meet with the various subject teachers.

The "grade level" meeting and "back-to-school" night are of mutual value to parents and teachers. Better understanding of the child or youth accrue to both through this shared experience; the ground work for effective home-school co-operation is established. The wise teacher will attempt to encourage such meetings if he happens to be in a school system that does not conduct them.

The Parent-Teacher Association

This organization, known as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, is worthy of the active support of each teacher. It is a national body established solely for the good of children and youth. Its laudable objectives are as follows: *

(1) To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community; (2) To raise the standards of home life; (3) To secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth; (4) To bring into closer relation the home and the school so that parents and teachers may co-operate; (5) To develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education.

The organization was founded in 1897 as the National Congress of Mothers. In 1907, it was reorganized as the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. Then in 1924, the organization adopted its present name, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. It is known the nation over, however, simply as the P.T.A.

Teachers and school administrators have in the P.T.A. a strong

* *The Parent-Teacher Organization* (Chicago: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1944), p. 23.

ally for their efforts to improve schools. The organization exerts influence in the realm of school legislation on both state and national levels and supports hard issues and necessary tax increases in many communities. Supplementary instructional supplies have been provided for many schools by their local chapters. The teacher who finds himself in a school that has a strong P.T.A. is favored. If he is not so fortunate, he should devote untiring efforts to helping to build a strong chapter for his school.

PROFESSIONAL CONTACTS WITH NONPARENTS

An important group is often overlooked by those who are interested in education. This group is made up of nonparents—adults who do not have children in school. Included in the group are parents of preschool-age children, parents whose children have all finished elementary and high school, adults who are not married, and married couples who do not have children. The support and co-operation of the nonparent group is necessary for a first-class educational program.

Teachers work with nonparents as well as parents in adult education programs, at school-sponsored activities, and at various meetings as official representatives of the schools. The extent to which teachers participate in activities that bring them into contact with nonparents varies from community to community as well as from teacher to teacher. Nevertheless, an important part of the work of most teachers involves them in activities with adult nonparents.

Through Adult Education

It is estimated that more than 40 million adults, or about one out of every three adults in the United States, are enrolled in some type of adult education activity. The staff members required for this extensive program number 5 million part-time instructors, and 100,000 administrators, supervisors, and field workers. Classes may deal with subjects of an esoteric nature or with something recreational or even frivolous. Courses range from "The Impact of Science on Contemporary Thought," taught to a highly educated people, to a class in arts and crafts for "a dozen bored, overweight dowagers, dabbling at ceramics in the

local Y.W.C.A. for want of something better to do.”⁷

Many of the adult education programs are directed and taught by teachers and administrators in elementary and secondary schools. Through their work in adult education programs, teachers come into contact with interesting adults and enjoy a level of teaching which represents, in most cases, a contrast to their usual professional assignment.

Several values accrue to the schools through teacher participation in adult education programs. First, such programs help to raise the educational level of the community. And improving the educational level of the community is to a teacher what enhancing the fertility of the soil is to a farmer. In both cases a better product is made possible. Second, the prestige of the teacher is enhanced. His fellow citizens come to recognize his professional strengths.

The emphasis upon adult education is likely to intensify in a world characterized by rapid change. As a consequence, the mechanical conception of education as something that is finished upon graduation from high school or college will become obsolete; in fact, it already is. As Daniel R. Davies noted: “Some thoughtful people are maintaining the children born today will never finish school.”⁸ What has been known as adult education is fast becoming an integral part of the educational system.

In School-sponsored Activities

Each year school-sponsored activities attract nonparents as well as parents. A typical example is American Education Week which is a week set aside in November by presidential proclamation for people to give special attention and appreciation to their schools. During American Education Week it is customary for communities to encourage visitation to schools and to present programs dealing with educational problems to key groups via radio and television facilities. Churches, service clubs, and newspapers customarily pay observance to the work of schools, and as a result, during the week teachers throughout America come

⁷ Typical courses are: *How to Invest, Aging in the Modern World, Psychology of the Emotions, Home Nursing, English, Drawing, Painting, Pottery, Public Speaking.*

⁸ Daniel R. Davies, “The Adult Education Stampede,” *Overview* (February, 1960), p. 55.

into contact with numerous adult nonparents.

Other types of activities also provide occasions during which nonparent adults and teachers are associated. For example, athletic events, plays, music festivals, and Business-Industry-Education days bring many nonparents into the schools and into contact with teachers. The alert and competent teacher uses every opportunity at his disposal to become better acquainted with adult nonparents. Their support is essential to a good educational program.

As a Representative of the School

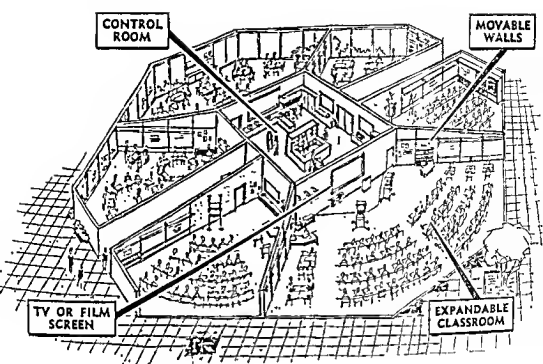
Frequently, civic clubs and other organizations in the community call upon the schools to furnish a speaker, consultant, or an entertainer for their meetings. Often they request particular teachers for these activities. In some instances the program chairman of the organization desiring a teacher speaker or consultant will call the superintendent or principal for his recommendation. At any rate, teachers with special talents find numerous opportunities to participate in various community activities as an official representative of the school.

SUMMARY

The cliché that claims the teacher "often thinks as a child because he lives in a child's world" is without factual foundation. Teachers actually come into contact with other adults in various ways. They work with professional colleagues, parents, and other adults.

Teachers work with other teachers. They pool their experience and knowledge in the interest of improving education. Faculty meetings, departmental meetings, committee projects of various types and similar undertakings demand that teachers work together. It is important to remember that (a) teachers' relationships with other teachers should be governed by professional ethics, (b) a teacher's work impinges upon and is affected by what other teachers do, and (c) new teachers should be encouraged to retain their idealism about their work and an inquiring mind toward it.

Teachers work with the principal who is the leader of the staff.



The school of the future as pictured by the Educational Facilities Laboratories (see page 359) would have classrooms clustered around a central audio-visual and resources core. The classrooms themselves could be partitioned off by movable, sound-resistant walls to offer large and small instruction spaces. As pictured, this could be the plan for an entire school, for a wing, or for a school-within-a-school. In the center is rear-screen projection equipment for visuals distributed to various rooms from this central location. (Educational Facilities Laboratories.) Some of the features of the school of the future are part of the plan of the North Hagerstown High School in Maryland (below). Here, with the partitions open, the general education area becomes one large dining room. (Board of Education of Washington County, Hagerstown, Maryland.)





The process of education may well be affected by the impact of technological developments that help to carry out phases of the instructional program of the school (see page 100). Above, a Spanish language laboratory with each booth equipped with a tape recorder, earphones, and microphone, and at left, a teacher at a master console. The teacher can speak to or listen to any pupil in the class. (Photos, courtesy John Burroughs High School, Burbank, California; Redondo Union High School, Redondo Beach, California; and Rheem Califone.)



Sixth graders at the Calabash Street School, Woodland Hills, California, using teaching machines during a research project testing a spelling program.

Also many school systems employ staff assistants to aid the teacher in his work. Included in the category of staff assistants are counselors, psychologists, school nurses, school social workers, speech and hearing specialists, supervisors' and consultants. The wise teacher avails himself of the services provided by specialists on the staff.

Teachers share with the superintendent of schools his authority and responsibility. Policy that is recommended to the board of education is developed with teacher participation. Teachers look to the superintendent of schools for professional leadership throughout the school system and community.

Various teacher organizations, such as the NEA and state education associations, employ personnel to work with educational leaders. These organizations are guided by the aspirations and achievements of teachers.

Teachers and parents constitute a team. Pupil progress is reported to parents; teachers visit in pupils' homes; and teacher-parent group meetings are held in many schools. The universally known P.T.A. usually provides an excellent example of the teacher-parent team at work.

Adults other than parents have an investment and interest in education and often come into contact with teachers. Some 40 million adults are engaged in adult education programs which involve many public school teachers. Each year teachers work with adults through school-sponsored activities such as American Education Week, plays, music festivals, occupation days, and similar events. Finally, teachers often represent the school as speakers or consultants for local organizations, such as civic clubs. There are ample opportunities for teachers to work with other adults.

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THE TEACHER AS A
SCHOLAR

An interest in scholarship in a particular subject field is one reason, often the primary one, for the choice of teaching as a career. The successful teacher continues to be a scholar throughout his life. The nature of teaching, the rapid expansion of knowledge in all fields, the responsibility of members of the profession for the search for truth—all combine to make high-quality scholarship a characteristic of every professional teacher.

In addition, because the preservice preparation of teachers does not yet equal the periods of formal study required for other professions, it is necessary for deficiencies to be remedied through on-the-job study. As a result, more attention is given to in-service professional improvement than is characteristic of any other field. The variety of activities planned and encouraged for individual and group study of professional problems and the emphasis given to a wide range of incentives to stimulate participation are distinguishing characteristics of the profession of teaching.

Some of the ways in which individual teachers attempt to upgrade themselves professionally include independent professional study, graduate work, observation of other teachers, attendance at conventions and conferences, research and experimentation, travel for educational purposes, writing for professional journals, and self-appraisal. Teachers also join together in groups to carry on programs of professional improvement. They work on curriculum improvement, special problems of instruction in a grade or field, study together new developments in their fields, and engage in general cultural studies. To facilitate joint study by teachers, a variety of types of activities have become popular, ranging from committee work to workshops, preschool conferences, and regular teachers' meetings.

While it is true that successful practitioners in other professions must keep up-to-date with new knowledge and techniques, and

also have the obligation to lead the lives of educated persons and well-informed citizens, they do not match the enthusiasm of teachers for in-service study. Reasons for such differences are found not only in the limitations of the initial preparation which most teachers receive but also in the requirements of teaching itself.

NECESSITY FOR CONTINUING SCHOLARSHIP

Teachers must continue to be scholars for several basic reasons. First of all, by aptitude and inclination they are individuals with an insatiable appetite for new knowledge—they simply desire to know. Second, the knowledge which is the teacher's stock in trade is in a process of continuous expansion and verification. A commitment to teach is the choice to engage in lifelong learning. In addition, the responsibilities, professional conditions, and opportunities of teachers make the pursuit of scholarship an easier mission than is the case in certain other fields, such as medicine and engineering. A further factor is the incentives provided teachers to live the life of students as a part of their work.

The Desire to Know

Teaching is essentially a process of transmitting knowledge and attitudes to others. The goal must ever be to discover truth and put it to work to the benefit of man and civilization. This commitment fosters a desire to know, to understand, to search for better insights and reliable facts.

A process of selection operates as individuals consider whether they will devote their lives to teaching. Those who have little appetite for learning beyond what is required will choose fields which require qualities other than good scholarship. On the other hand, those who enjoy study, who find a challenge in the search for ideas, concepts, principles, and new relationships will see in teaching an opportunity to extend their inclinations. Not all who enter teaching, of course, are driven by a desire to know. Nor do all teachers retain their thirst for knowledge through the years of professional duty. Yet it must be recognized that motivation toward self-improvement as a student is one of the charac-

teristics of the good potential teacher.

The relationship between desire to know on the part of the teacher and ability to motivate students to learn has long been recognized. The individual who is himself curious, who finds in intellectual activities stimulation and excitement, who demonstrates genuine respect for knowledge, whose habits of scholarship are well established, will kindle the enthusiasm of his pupils along similar lines. This realization supports the pedagogical slogan: "What we hope for our youth, we must demand of our teachers."

The professional teacher has been described as an artist. This concept helps to shed light on why teachers desire to know. The artist—the professional teacher—never knows permanent satisfaction from his work or his knowledge. He is forever restless and aspires to improve. Perfection is never achieved although it is always the goal. Each achievement, therefore, is but a partial triumph; with each attainment, the artist teacher must accept at least a faint taste of bitterness because success is not complete. A step toward a goal requires a redefinition and refinement of the objective sought. Hence, the teacher always strives to know more and to teach more effectively. To do these things, he must be ever the scholar.

The creative teacher enjoys the cycle of achievement and the subsequent raising of goals. Inherent in the cycle is dissatisfaction. This phenomenon has been well described by the Italian idealist Benedetto Croce: "The true conception of progress must . . . fulfill at once the two opposite conditions, of an attainment, at every instant . . . without, however, losing what has been attained; of a perpetual solution and of a perpetually renascent problem demanding a new solution."

Emerson stated the same premise in different words: "Every ultimate fact is only the first of a new series. Every general law only a particular fact of some more general law presently to disclose itself. There is no outside, no inclosing wall, no circumference to us."

The teacher's behavior pattern reveals the aptness of the statements by Croce and Emerson. There are always new goals to be accomplished—increased knowledge of subject matter, bet-

ter understanding of children and youth, and more effective teaching methods. As one writer summarized: ¹ "Perhaps, in the final analysis, we must be forced to say that completeness can come only to those who shall never know it, for their completeness is in the pursuit of the unattainable." Such is the nature of the teacher.

Expansion of Knowledge

Finalities in education are but illusions, dangerous mirages, that destroy creativeness and weaken intellectual activities while encouraging the acceptance of folklore and dogma as rationalizations for complacency. This is true whether the absolutes relate to aims of education, subject matter of the curriculum, methods of teaching, or to the preparation of teachers themselves. As long as knowledge expands, change is inevitable. Education is itself in a continual state of transition.

The following types of changes illustrate the compulsion for continued scholarship that confronts the teacher.

Changes in subject matter. The principle of parity, which was taught in physics classes, is no longer accepted as true. Students in health classes are no longer taught that man has no defense against polio, since the development of Salk vaccine. "Poor little Rhode Island, the smallest of the forty-eight," a refrain in a popular song, along with many statements in history and political science books, is now out of date. Einstein's theory of relativity is creeping into mathematics books, even those used in upper elementary-school grades. Each year, scholars uncover new facts and reorganize old ones that change the subject matter in all fields.

Leaders in various subject matter fields have taken steps to help teachers keep up-to-date. For example, 381 institutes were sponsored by the National Science Foundation in the summer of 1960. Some 18,000 high school and college teachers of science, mathematics, and engineering, selected by the Foundation to participate in the Institutes, received financial assistance.

A commission has been established by the American Association of Physics Teachers and the American Institute of Physics

¹ P. F. Valentine, *The Art of the Teacher* (New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1931), p. 65.

for the purpose of developing a co-ordinated physics curriculum and to bridge the gap between teaching and research. It was reported in the *New York Times* that establishment of the commission moved the teaching of physics to "the brink of drastic change."

Knowledge of the processes of education. Research goes forward in the field of education itself regarding human intelligence, its application and improvement. One large philanthropic organization, the Ford Foundation has expended several million dollars in support of experimentation designed to improve the utilization of teaching competence in schools. One outcome, a publication entitled *New Directions to Quality Education: The Secondary School Tomorrow*,² has created much discussion in the profession. The pattern of the future in secondary schools, according to the "Trump Plan," will be characterized by (1) more time and necessity for independent study by students; (2) radically different facilities and schedules; (3) extension of the professional teacher's knowledge and effectiveness by the employment of clerical and academic assistants and the use of technological teaching aids; (4) team teaching; and (5) grouping of students on the basis of the requirements of various learning assignments.

In 1959, the federal government allocated almost four million dollars to basic educational research and much larger amounts to strengthening teaching in certain fields, such as science, foreign languages, and guidance, which were judged essential to national defense. The research was supported through the National Defense Education Act and the Co-operative Research Program of the U.S. Office of Education.

Through such investigations educational theories are being tested by scientific procedures; empirical evidence is being compiled, organized, and appraised; and new methods of teaching, as, for example, by television, are being tried. Knowledge about human development, at various age levels, is being studied for insights into ways to improve the rate and permanence of learning. In short, changes are occurring in the field of education that

* J. Lloyd Trump, *New Directions to Quality Education: The Secondary School Tomorrow* (New York and Washington, D.C.: Fund for the Advancement of Education and National Education Association, 1960).

make it imperative for the teacher to continue to be a scholar of the processes of education as well as of the subject field or fields in which he instructs.

Mores and customs. The close relationship between the school and the society it serves makes it essential for the teacher to keep abreast of changes that take place in mores and customs of community life. Developments related to population shifts, the transition from rural to urban life, the impact of technology and industry, work and unemployment, human relations, crime, economics, and politics that shape the personalities of communities are required study for teachers.

World affairs. The teacher out of touch with what is happening in the world, with the gigantic struggles that rage between a free people and opposing political ideologies, with the space race or the efforts to strengthen underdeveloped nations, is poorly qualified to teach any subject or any grade. Citizens look to teachers for help in understanding a world which crowds in on them through the daily press, radio, and television. In a time when the school can no longer afford to be 25 to 50 years behind the life in the community, the teacher is truly a frontiersman of the contemporary world, not a custodian of intellectual antiques.

Objectives of education. Although the basic aims of education remain fairly constant and universal, the objectives of the school are constantly influenced by a society that is dynamic. Inasmuch as society is never static, the purposes served by schools undergo changes as well. Thus, during the depression years of the 1930's schools were charged with the major obligation to keep children and youth off the streets, out of mischief and out of competition in the world of work, at any cost; a scant 15 years later, following World War II, the demand was for higher-equality education, particularly for those of higher intellectual abilities.

Teachers who voluntarily and wholeheartedly accept their obligations for keeping abreast of the expansion of knowledge in various fields realize rich rewards as individuals as well as professional practitioners. They share the thrill, day by day, of being in the forefront of the greatest adventure known to man—the search for truth.

Unique Professional Conditions and Opportunities

Most professional people spend their lives in practice in one location, with about the same clientele, dealing generally with similar problems from year to year; but not the teacher. The professional conditions of teaching, by their nature, provide unique opportunities for continued scholarship.

In addition to being relatively free to seek changes in teaching assignments within one school system, and to the challenge that comes from working with an ever changing content and new groups of pupils, teachers may move easily from one school community, state, or region to another. According to a rather comprehensive study conducted recently by the NEA, 25 per cent of the first-year teachers who responded to the questionnaire were not teaching in the state they considered home.³ Another 25 per cent were teaching in states other than the one in which they received their college education, or the major part of it.

Teachers move about frequently these days. Not only do they move from state to state, but there is great mobility within states. Their mobility follows the general shifts in population. The dominant trend, of course, is from rural areas to cities and suburbs.

The fact that teachers are mobile means that they encounter new environments frequently. This fact underscores the importance of their role as a student. They learn from their moves. And they need to study diligently their new environment in order to make their teaching effective.

Incentives for Professional Growth in Service

An incentive helps to create a desire or a predisposition to behave in a given manner. Some teachers have the desire to learn, and some do not. What makes the difference? Why do some teachers have the incentives to be a student year in and year out? Perhaps teachers themselves have the best answer to the questions. In a study which involved 1,197 teachers and 259 principals, it was concluded that:⁴

³Sam M. Lambert, "Beginning Teachers and Their Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. 7, No. 4 (1956), p. 348.

⁴Durward N. Cory, "Incentives Used in Motivating Professional Growth of Teachers," *North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. 27 (April, 1953), p. 399.

(1) Teachers who seek to improve the curriculum and other areas of schoolwork appreciate being given the opportunity to do so. (2) There is a natural desire to attain status which is satisfied by an additional degree or training. . . . (3) Teachers desire to attain recognition for effective work which they have accomplished. (4) Teachers receive satisfaction from participating in decisions which affect their own work . . . (5) Teachers like to feel that contributions and suggestions are appreciated. (6) Teachers appreciate being given opportunities to develop their own qualities of responsibility and leadership. . . .

Another type of incentive and an important stimulus to growth of teachers in service is called extrinsic motivation. The following incentives are included in this type of motivation:

1. The salary schedule of the school system makes provisions for merit pay raises.

2. Promotional opportunities are open only to those who have given evidence of professional improvement.

3. The board of education requires that teachers obtain a minimum number of college or university semester hours at stated intervals.

4. Teachers may attend professional conferences and conventions as representatives of the school with expenses paid by the board of education.

5. The school conducts workshops and other educational meetings at which attendance of teachers is required.

6. Teachers are employed on a 12-months' contract.

There are plenty of incentives for the teacher to be a student. The rewards are professional achievements and advancements and a satisfying career as a teacher.

INDIVIDUAL IN-SERVICE ACTIVITIES

There was a time in the development of the profession of teaching when it was assumed that a college degree prepared one for a lifetime of teaching. This assumption was reflected in teacher certification regulations. It once was commonplace for the graduate of a four-year teacher education program to receive a teaching certificate good for life. This practice has practically disappeared in the United States. The fallacy upon which it was based was recognized and practice changed so that teaching certificates

now have to be renewed periodically.

That teachers need to continue learning is a profession-wide assumption. What avenues for growth are open? In what kinds of activities do teachers engage to facilitate their professional development?

Numerous activities have been developed through which teachers can improve themselves. These in-service activities include professional study, experimentation and research, classroom observation, conventions, professional conferences, individual conferences, travel, professional writing, and self-appraisal.

Independent Professional Study

The oldest and perhaps the most basic form of scholarship is independent study. Despite the emphasis that has been placed on group activities in recent years, the teacher who is dedicated to scholarship must rely upon self-direction and individual initiative to keep abreast of expanding knowledge as well as to join in its quest.

To aid the teacher's independent professional study, many school systems maintain libraries of books for members of their faculties. In addition, school libraries and those now available in most communities of any size bring to the ambitious student today resources which a half-century ago were available only in large metropolitan centers. With Thomas Carlyle's reminder, "a collection of books is the best of all universities," the teacher never leaves, or truly finishes, college. Its intellectual excitement and resources are his lifelong possession. Any day his independent reading may remind him of Thoreau's observation: "How many a man has dated a new era in his life from the reading of a book."

Graduate Work

Summer months and longer week ends than most other professional people enjoy afford the teacher opportunities for time in which to undertake advanced graduate work, either in a nearby college or university or in extension classes. Until a few years ago, college courses, either undergraduate or graduate, represented the major type of in-service study of teachers. Today, graduate work by teachers still is a predominant but not an exclusive means by which teachers strengthen their professional preparation.

In the past many teachers have used graduate study in education as a springboard to advancement in related professional assignments, in counseling, supervision, or administration. Increasingly, however, graduate study, particularly at the master's degree level, is coming to be looked upon as an additional step in the preparation of the professional teacher. As this practice is becoming more pronounced, the tendency is for teachers to undertake graduate study in their subject teaching fields as well as in related pedagogical areas.

Observation of Other Teachers

Observation of other teachers, particularly for the beginner, is a practical way to improve professional competence. Opportunities for this type of functional study are made possible in many school systems by providing "visiting days" on which substitute teachers replace those who desire to visit in another school system. Through observation of others the teacher may study classroom methods and procedures, some of which may be new to him, and re-examine his own practices. Special demonstrations are sometimes provided in college laboratory schools to which teachers from elementary and secondary schools are invited. These may be preceded or followed by conferences with the teacher-education staff about the methods or materials demonstrated.

A few institutions are beginning to televise classroom teaching for observation purposes. Those experimenting with this procedure are making telefilm copies of presentations which can be made available to teachers who cannot be reached by closed-circuit or live productions. Similarly, the teacher fortunate enough to work in a school system which makes available the help of television lessons to supplement the regular classroom work has the advantage of studying, while he teaches, the style and techniques of the best instructors.

Attendance at Conventions and Conferences

The most alive ideas as well as the results of recent research usually are circulated first through the devices of educational conventions or conferences. Professional associations, colleges and universities, state departments of public instruction, all use such means for channeling to teachers in elementary and second-

ary schools facts and information as well as news of available new instructional supplies and equipment. The exhibits of books, laboratory equipment, and teaching aids which commercial companies provide at certain meetings of teachers are alone worth the cost of attendance, many teachers feel. Those who endeavor to keep at the forefront of new knowledge in their fields find attendance at such meetings, particularly within their own regions or states, of substantial value.

Sometimes individual teachers have chances to serve as delegates to state, regional, and national conventions and conferences, such as those of the state and national education associations. When they represent their school or local teachers association their expenses typically are paid. In other cases, when teachers go to improve their own professional knowledge, the school system often will provide a substitute. For certain key county and state meetings, schools may be dismissed because school boards consider conference benefits of such value as to justify attendance by all teachers.

Research and Experimentation

With colleges and universities, elementary and secondary schools share responsibility for educational research and experimentation. In fact, the laboratories in which much of such systematic study must be done are the classrooms in which teachers work. The teacher, himself, will often be integrally involved in the experimentation as the active researcher. Often the project will involve the testing of basic premises that underlie long-accepted practice. Sometimes it will involve what some call "action research" to apply a procedure that is being refined to a particular local situation. In either event, the teacher who is alert finds opportunities to advance his own scholarship by active participation as a member of a research team.

Not only will the teacher find opportunities to share in the research being developed by others, he has open to him all the channels for his own independent research. He, in effect, is in charge of a laboratory in which such vital subjects as learning, human development, evaluation, curriculum design, and motivation may be observed daily. With planning, it is possible to make such study systematic and objective to the benefit of both the

individual teacher and the profession as a whole.

In addition to being able to conduct research of his own, and to help with that planned by others, the teacher must be a consumer of research results. To do this, he must keep abreast of the reports that are made available through professional journals and, also, maintain his scholarship in the field of research design and instrumentation.

Travel for Educational Purposes

As a means of self and professional improvement, travel may be a pleasant, beneficial aspect of one's scholarship when systematically planned and undertaken with educational purposes as the goal. Travel enriches the cultural background and, if to another country, expands knowledge of international relationships. It also permits opportunities—particularly for teachers in fields such as art, music, history, foreign language, and geography—to strengthen professional competence through firsthand study of their subject matter.

The value of travel for educational purposes is recognized in the salary schedules of many school systems. The general practice is for this type of experience, when approved in advance, to be substituted for formal study required by the school system for either contract continuation or salary schedule increments.

Writing for Professional Journals

An aspect of scholarship, open to those who are engaged in research and experimentation or who generate creative ideas about their fields, is the publication of reports and articles in professional journals. Such publications are maintained at state and national levels for both general and specialized interests in education. Often, too, individual school systems publish news bulletins about their own projects which teachers help to prepare.

In a genuine sense, publication is the final stage of scholarship. The individual who has identified, rearranged, and analyzed bits of knowledge is obligated to share his work with others to the benefit of all. Such dissemination can be accomplished through published reports because of their range and permanence.

Self-Appraisal

The good teacher is a student of self. By the time he has achieved full professional status, he will have developed, through systematic self-appraisal, a fairly good understanding of his strengths and weaknesses as well as of his approach to professional problems. The self-image he holds may be both a guide to his practice and a type of personal conscience that functions to help with self-discipline, or it may serve to motivate changes in behavior as the individual rejects the picture of himself he has come to recognize.

The process of self-appraisal is particularly vital for professional people inasmuch as they do not, as do tradesmen and other types of workers, carry on their practice under the strict day-to-day direction of a superior officer. Teachers, like all professionals, function in their classrooms with full responsibility for the judgments made and procedures followed in the instruction of a group of children. Only by strict, and continuous, attention to self-analysis may high standards of practice be maintained.

Self-appraisal can be aided, of course, by appealing to the judgments of others, as, for example, to fellow teachers, supervisors, or administrators. In addition, check lists of traits and practices are available to guide individual self-analysis. In most cases, however, the degree to which a professional person studies his own actions depends upon his personal commitment to improving his professional competence.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR GROUP STUDY

More so than in certain professions in which practice is highly individual, teachers undertake some types of scholarship which require co-operation with their colleagues. These include the procedures necessary to improve continuously the total curricular offerings of a school, the development of resource units for a particular grade or subject field, and the study of new developments in a teaching field or in a general cultural area such as foreign affairs or atomic science.

Co-operative Curriculum Improvement

Certain features of the school curriculum may be required by law or specified by the regulations of a state department of public instruction or local school boards, but the major portion is determined by the decisions and recommendations of members of the faculty and administration of the school itself. Although some schools may seem only to be providing curriculums typical of the area, closer study often will reveal particular features that are unique to the community and pupil populations served. Such differences in curriculum, when they exist, are the result of planning by teachers and the approval of the board of education on the recommendation of the superintendent.

Inasmuch as communities and the composition of student bodies change, and as new knowledge is ever becoming available for inclusion in the program of studies, the process of curriculum development is a continuous one. Each year, committees of teachers study aspects of the curriculum to make certain that it is abreast of the times. Such investigations are usually conducted by faculty committees appointed by the superintendent of schools or the principal of a school. Membership in such bodies affords favorable opportunities, particularly for young teachers, to learn from others while at the same time gaining a broad overview of the program of the total school system.

Study of Problems of Instruction for a Grade or Subject Field

Within a grade or subject field, teachers usually work together to find solutions to common problems, to develop broad resource units out of which all may design individual teaching procedures, and to appraise the up-to-dateness of the content being taught. Evaluation of pupil attainments often is a matter for joint study as a means of analyzing strengths and weaknesses in the program provided. Sometimes experimental projects are initiated by the teachers in a field to discover improvements that can be made in their work.

The newer developments in the use of instructional teams to carry on the teaching of a large group of children in one or more grades or in one subject field is another illustration of an oppor-

tunity for co-operative scholarship by teachers. Such teams make it possible for interns and beginning teachers to be closely associated with highly competent master teachers and specialists in various phases of instruction and the curriculum. In the team effort each contributes his own best skills and in addition helps to carry out some of the general phases of the instructional program. Joint planning, observation of each other, and co-operative evaluation of the effectiveness of the program are all activities which benefit the professional development of all.

Group Study of New Subject Field or Cultural Areas

When so-called "explosion of knowledge" takes place in a subject field or a cultural area, teachers often organize themselves into study groups to obtain assistance from an expert who knows of the new developments. A notable example was the joint study of developments in the field of atomic fission that took place just after World War II. Such study is usually informal and voluntary. Often it is organized by small groups of teachers without help from the school system.

The newest type of group study that is attracting the interest and participation of teachers is the television-correspondence courses which are being developed to bring the latest knowledge to teachers. The courses taught on the Continental Classroom series, beginning with a course in physics in 1958-1959, permit teachers to view new content taught by a master teacher. Often they organize discussion groups to follow up the television lesson. Those who desire college credit may enroll for correspondence assignments related to the lessons. Another example of this type of course was the program set up to teach the use of audio-visual aids via television-correspondence courses in several Midwestern states during 1960; this program was conducted as one of the National Defense research projects sponsored by the United States Government.

Devices for Group Study

The popularity of group study for teachers has developed several types of devices that are commonly used.

Workshops. A workshop is a systematic program of group

tion, nine speciality journals, and special reports and bulletins for particular interest groups; (2) Conventions and conferences—an annual convention attended by 10,000 to 20,000 physicians and offering a program of some 400 papers, a separate annual clinical conference for some 5,000, closed-circuit TV demonstrations, other specialized conferences held throughout the year; (3) Co-operation with affiliated state and local medical associations; (4) Encouraging M.D.'s to take postgraduate work in a medical school—about 50,000 physicians participate each year in refresher, clinical, and similar courses; (5) Working with medical schools and state and local medical societies to plan and program off-campus courses for practicing physicians.

American Dental Association

The ADA serves the dental profession by sponsoring or encouraging the following in-service activities: (1) Publications—*The ADA Journal*, research reports, and other papers published; (2) Convention—a national convention held each year with the program consisting of papers, discussions, and research reports; (3) Clinics—special interest clinics conducted for members; (4) Co-operation with regional, state, and local societies in sponsoring, planning and conducting workshops, courses (credit and noncredit), one-day conferences, and other refresher activities.

American Hospital Association

The American Hospital Association sponsors, conducts, or co-operates in the planning and development of the following in-service activities for members: (1) Publications—manuals published for members; (2) Convention—the convention held annually to provide general assemblies, round table and panel discussions, supplemented by more than 500 commercial or technical exhibits; (3) Production of materials—films, filmstrips, and slides produced to be used for in-service education purposes; (4) Workshops—package programs of one day's length developed for use by state associations.

From the foregoing summaries of some of the in-service activities of other professions, it is clear that professional people are expected to be students. This generalization applies to the

profession of teaching. The teacher is a student for as long as he is a teacher. In fact, teaching is perhaps the highest type of study.

SUMMARY

The teacher is intrinsically motivated to be a scholar because of his desire to know. He has an insatiable appetite for new knowledge. New goals are always awaiting his attention—better knowledge of subject matter, better understanding of children and youth, and more effective teaching methods.

Knowledge expands and changes; hence, to retain his status as an expert, the teacher must be a student. Continual study is required of the teacher if he is to keep abreast of developments.

Numerous activities have been developed through which teachers can learn. Among the more prevalent activities for individuals are professional study, experimentation and research, classroom observation, individual conferences, travel, professional writing, and self-appraisal. Most of these activities, as well as others not listed here, are available to teachers in the better school systems in the United States.

Many group activities, some voluntary, others required, help the teacher advance his learning. Teachers should participate with administrators and principals in planning and evaluating in-service activities. The more important in-service activities for groups of teachers include curriculum committees, workshops, preschool conferences, faculty meetings, and school publications.

Teaching is not unique among the professions in making it obligatory upon members to be students throughout their career. In fact, successful practice in any of the major professions requires that a practitioner continue to learn throughout his career. A good deal of similarity exists between in-service programs in the various professions. For example, the American Medical Association, the American Dental Association, and the American Hospital Association all report extensive use of publications, conventions and conferences, graduate study, and clinics or workshops. These activities are common among the various professions.

One of two basic choices is open to the professional person. He either spends his life defending and espousing what he learned through his formal education, or he considers what he learned in

his formal education as a base upon which to build as his career develops. The successful professional person chooses the latter course; he is a scholar in the true sense of the word.

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PART FOUR

**THE PROFESSION
OF TEACHING**

THE STATUS
OF TEACHERS

The status of the individual teacher is directly related to his own competence and his personal contribution to pupils and society as well as to the total standing of the profession of teaching. Great teachers like Socrates and Plato are accorded high places in the history of the human race, almost equal to such religious leaders as Jesus, Buddha, and Gandbi, who, incidentally, during their own times were also called teachers. Similarly, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, Hopkins, Parkhurst, and Beecher are names of outstanding teachers well known to all familiar with educational developments of the past century. Yet, while the memories of these men and women are held in highest esteem, others have left little trace of their pedagogical contributions. As Jacques Barzun, a noted contemporary teacher himself and Dean of Faculties and Provost of Columbia University, has said:¹ "August examples show that no limit can be set to the power of a teacher, but this is equally true in the other direction: no career can so nearly approach zero in its effects."

The status of a teacher, therefore, insofar as this concept relates to a person's place in the prestige system of his society is determined by his own individual efforts as well as by the collective contributions, both past and present, of all who have been called teachers. For this reason, generalizations about the status of teachers are subject to error. Obviously, not all teachers will command the same degree of respect. Then, too, multiple bases for ascribing prestige may be used, depending on the values endorsed. Occupation, income, education, race, religion, age, and talent are examples of factors people emphasize when assigning presumed worth to one another.

¹ Jacques Barzun, *Teacher in America* (Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1944), p. 5.

TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES

Colonial teachers were direct transplantations of the sixteenth-century teacher-religious leader of Europe. They were ministers in some cases who preached on Sunday and taught in the Latin grammar schools during the week. Some, of course, were endeavoring to make a career of teaching, but the short term of school combined with the low pay for their tutorial duties made it necessary for them to engage in other work to earn their livings. No qualifications for teaching beyond knowledge of the particular subjects to be taught prevailed, except for religious beliefs. Those who taught were often physically weak, unable to work in the fields or to fight the wars. Benjamin Franklin drew an apt picture of the status of teachers in the eighteenth century, in the prospectus for his proposed academy that later became the University of Pennsylvania:

That a number of the poorer sort will hereby be qualified to act as schoolmasters in the country, to teach children reading, writing, arithmetic, and the grammar of their mother tongue, and being of good morals and known character, may be recommended from the Academy to country schools for that purpose—the country suffering very much at present for want of good schoolmasters, and obliged frequently to employ in their schools vicious imported servants or concealed Papists, who by their bad examples and instructions often deprave the morals or corrupt the principles of the children under their care.

Since it was thought that the “poorer sort” could serve as teachers, obviously the teacher did not rank very high in the prestige system of his society. However, the influence of the teacher was acknowledged by Franklin as it has been in every generation.

A second major factor in the development of status for teaching as a profession has been the entry of women into practice. Colonial “Dame Schools” were taught by women instead of men and were housed usually in a home. The demand for all able-bodied men to help tame the frontiers of a new land, combined with the quest for equality and independence by American women, opened opportunities for young ladies from the best homes to teach, at first

in elementary schools and later in high schools and colleges.

The swing toward femininity in the professional ranks, some feel, has done little to enhance the status of teaching as a profession. Though their equality has been declared, and their teaching competence proved, the public has been reluctant to accept women as professional people. The fact that many young ladies do not themselves respect teaching as a profession is no doubt a strong contributing cause. Although individual women teachers, as is true of men, are able to establish themselves in positions of high respect and public esteem, the tendency has been for many citizens to visualize teaching as temporary work for women in search of a husband or for men en route to other occupations or professions.

"Example Status" of Teachers

The importance of the influence of teachers on the lives of boys and girls is strongly reflected by community attitudes towards teachers. In fact, until recent years double standards prevailed in many places to insure that teachers would abide by patterns of conduct that would be better examples for young people to follow than those exemplified by many parents and citizens generally. Thus, in effect, teachers at the turn of the century had a type of "example status" thrust upon them by imposed restrictions such as those summarized below.²

Many school boards, especially in the small towns, restrict the recreational and social life of their teachers. In the larger cities there are few restrictions put upon teachers' activities outside of school, but in certain districts card-playing, dancing, smoking, and any social intercourse outside of church affairs are taboo. *Smoking is forbidden* Tennessee teachers by state law. The following is given as an example of an extremely restrictive local contract signed by certain North Carolina teachers:

"I promise to take a vital interest in all phases of Sunday School work, donating my time, service, and money without stint, for the benefit and uplift of the community.

"I promise to abstain from all dancing, immodest dressing, and

² "Unreasonable Restrictions on Teachers' Activities," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXXVII (October, 1936), pp. 92-96. Copyright 1936 by the University of Chicago.

any other conduct unbecoming a teacher and a lady.

"I promise not to go out with any young men except insofar as it may be necessary to stimulate Sunday School work.

"I promise not to fall in love, to become engaged, or secretly married . . ."

Many other schools have regulations which are very nearly as restrictive. Ewing tells of a male teacher in a Missouri school district who was asked to sign a resignation with his contract, the resignation becoming effective, and all salary due forfeited, if at any time or at any place during the period of the contract he should smoke a cigarette, pipe, or cigar. An Alabama school board forbids teachers to "have company or go automobile riding" on school nights. An Ohio school board forbids teachers to "go with other teachers." A Mississippi contract reads:

"It is further understood and agreed by the parties hereto that no teacher will play society to the detriment of the school or unnecessarily frolic on school nights or indulge excessively in any sort of socials during school nights, the superintendent to be the judge in these matters and to warn teachers, and should they persist in violating this regulation, it shall be deemed sufficient cause for dismissal."

These quotations, it should be remembered, deal with conditions forced on teachers of another era; they do not reflect the status of teachers today. A more accurate indicator of the standing advocated for teachers now is a resolution passed by the National Education Association recently. The NEA resolution, unanimously adopted, urged "teachers to exercise their full political rights and responsibilities and not retire into a neutral corner during political controversies." According to the resolution "teachers have a right to discuss political issues, campaign for candidates, and run for public office." It advocates that full political equality for teachers be guaranteed in the written personnel policies of school boards.

Word Portraits of Today's Teachers

Recently the National Education Association completed a study of the characteristics of men and women teachers. From composite data typical pictures were projected for male and female

teachers. Like the statistics for the typical or average person, of course, probably no individual will be exactly like the word portrait that resulted. Nevertheless, the descriptions help in visualizing the present average characteristics of men and women in teaching.³

The typical man teacher. The typical man teacher is 35.4 years old. He is married and has either one or two children. Large majorities of men in all groups are married; the total is 82.7 per cent. The average number of children of married men teachers is 1.8.

He holds a bachelor's degree. A master's or higher degree is held by 42.0 per cent of the male teachers.

His total teaching experience is 8.0 years; this includes 4.8 years in the school system in which he is now employed. . . .

He teaches in secondary grades; 129.1 pupils are enrolled in his classes, which have a median of 26.9 pupils each. However, 31.2 per cent of the men teach in elementary schools with median classes of 31.8 pupils. In urban schools, where 63.1 per cent of the male teachers are employed, classes are larger. The typical man teacher devotes 11.3 hours a week to school duties in addition to the regular school day.

He is an active member in a church and at least one other community organization. He voted in his school community in the most recent election. A total of 84.8 per cent of the men teachers voted.

The typical woman teacher. The typical woman teacher is 45.5 years of age, married, and has one child. In addition to the 54.0 per cent of woman teachers who are married, 11.9 per cent are widowed. Only 34.1 per cent are unmarried. The average number of children of married women teachers is 1.4.

She holds a bachelor's degree. A master's or higher degree is held by 18.1 per cent.

Her total teaching experience is 15.4 years. This includes 7.6 years in the system where she is now employed. . . .

She teaches in an elementary grade; 30.8 pupils are enrolled in her class. However, 26.7 per cent of the women teach in secondary grades, with a median of 129.5 pupils in classes having a median of 26.9 pupils each. In urban schools, where 58.7 per cent of the women teach, classes are larger. The typical woman teacher devoted 9.7 hours a week to school duties in addition to the regular school day.

³ National Education Association, "The Status of the American Public School Teacher," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXXV, No. 1 (February, 1957), p. 41.

She is an active member in a church and at least two other community organizations. She voted in her school community in the most recent election. A total of 86.4 per cent of the women teachers voted.

If she could go back to her college days and start over, she would again become a teacher. Of all the women teachers, 80.7 per cent reported that they would choose again to teach.

It should be remembered that these word portraits were developed through statistical procedures which deal in averages, ranges and typical activities or characteristics. They should not be viewed as a status to be expected by all anticipating a career in teaching. More important than the average, or typical, picture of the teacher insofar as individual status is concerned is the professional competence and personal ambition and application that each brings to his assignment.

SOCIAL STATUS OF TEACHERS

Two basic approaches to the problem of determining the social status of teachers have been employed. The first involves procedures whereby the social origin of students who select teaching as a career is determined; the second involves asking a wide range of people to rank teaching among other occupations. Both approaches have limitations.

The first procedure is limited by the process it employs to determine social status. One difficulty with the second is that most people are unable to rank the 40,000 occupations listed in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. Nevertheless, these two procedures are generally accepted as the most valid approaches now available to the problem of determining social status of various occupational groups.

Origins of Teachers

Two representative studies of the social origins of teachers have been reported recently.⁴ The first involved a survey of the social backgrounds of teachers in a Northern industrial city. The second dealt with the same subject; its locale was in a Southwestern state—Texas.

⁴ Lindley J. Stiles, ed., *The Teacher's Role in American Society*, Fourteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 14.

The general conclusion of the first study—social origins of teachers in Detroit—was that the teaching staff in a metropolitan Midwestern city “represents a wide range of social origins.” In a sample of 198 Detroit teachers, the percentage of occupations of fathers was as shown in Table 16.

TABLE 16

**FATHERS' OCCUPATIONS OF A SAMPLE OF
DETROIT TEACHERS**

Occupational Grouping	Percentage ^a
Professional	10.1
Business, managerial, etc.	15.6
Other white-collar	12.6
Farmer	5.5
Skilled labor	13.6
Other labor	28.6
Retired, unemployed, dead	13.6

^a Does not total 100 per cent because of rounding.

SOURCE: Adapted from Lindley J. Stiles, ed., *The Teacher's Role in American Society*, Fourteenth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957), p. 14.

The data support the generalization that Detroit's teachers come from a wide range of socioeconomic backgrounds. There is one surprising finding of the study. The number of teachers whose fathers were in either “skilled labor” or “other (types of) labor” is higher than one might expect.

A similar study made in Texas found that teachers in the Southwest came from middle and upper-middle class homes. According to this study, “Facts gathered in Texas lead one to believe that educational positions have a different set of values attached to them in many Middle Western communities. Although teachers do vary in their social origin, a large proportion come from lower-middle and upper-middle class homes.”

According to the Texas study, which had a sample of 150 teachers and other professional personnel, the number from each of four major social classes were upper-lower, 28; lower-middle, 67; upper-middle, 52; and upper, 3. According to the authors, “Teaching as a profession appears to provide opportunity for mobility

for at least 40 per cent of those who enter the field."

Although exact percentages vary, older studies indicate a picture similar to the ones reported. An investigation based upon 214 seniors in the school of education at the University of Michigan revealed that 17 per cent of their fathers were professional men; 25 per cent, business proprietors; 17 per cent, farmers; and 18 per cent of the men and 9 per cent of the women, skilled labor.⁵ Blum reported little variation in the social background of students preparing for five different professions.⁶

A few generalizations—highly tenuous, it must be remembered—might be drawn from the research on social status of teachers. According to available evidence: (1) The social origins of teachers are similar to those of people who enter other professions; (2) The social origins of teachers are roughly proportional to the percentage distribution of social classes in the general population; (3) Teaching as a profession constitutes a vehicle for upward social mobility for a sizable number of teachers; and (4) Teachers vary considerably in their social origins.

Prestige of Teachers

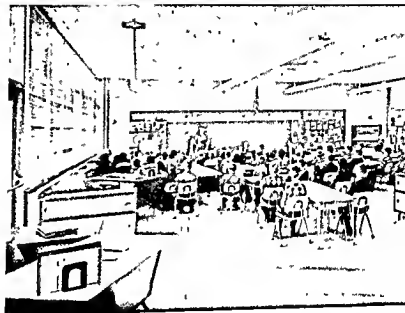
Studies of the prestige of occupations using a rating scale technique have been popular since the 1920's. In 1925, Counts reported a study based on the reaction of various groups of high school and college students, as well as of high school teachers, to a list of 45 occupations.⁷ The respondents were asked to rank the occupations according to prestige. Bankers were rated in first place; college professors, second; superintendents of schools, seventh; high school teachers, tenth; elementary school teachers, thirteenth; and rural school teachers, nineteenth.

Numerous studies made since the Counts investigation have consistently indicated that the prestige of teachers has increased since 1925. Two recent studies illustrate this point. A comprehensive, nation-wide public opinion survey was made by Elmo Roper

⁵ John Wesley Best, "A Study of Certain Selected Factors Underlying the Choice of Teaching as a Profession," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 17 (1948), pp. 201-258.

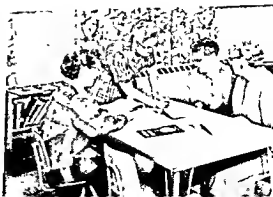
⁶ Lawrence P. Blum, "A Comparative Study of Students Preparing for Five Selected Professions Including Teaching," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 18 (1947), pp. 31-65.

⁷ George S. Counts, "The Social Status of Occupations," *School Review*, Vol. 33 (January, 1925), pp. 20-21.



Team teaching at Carson City Elementary School in Michigan—a different kind of team teaching from that described on page 359. The education area in this elementary school consists of two separate clusters of open space. The top picture shows one space broken into teaching areas by movable storage units. Every afternoon there is a cluster meeting turning the space into one large classroom conducted by the team's master teacher.

Every three weeks the teaching team in each cluster meets to plan the program for the next three weeks. (All photos, Louis C. King-scott & Associates, Inc.)





There are continuing changes both in subject matter and facilities in secondary school education (see pages 314-315). The pictures on this page show something of new study arrangements of pupils and teachers, freed from domination by hourly bell and standard class size. The top picture shows a large group class—a ninth grade general science class at North Hagerstown High School receiving the televised portion of a lesson. By contrast, the pictures below show the use of small discussion groups and independent study facilities with recorder and laboratory equipment (Photos, National Association of Secondary-School Principals.)

and reported in *Life* (October 16, 1950). Persons questioned in the Roper survey ranked certain occupations in the order of their importance to the community: *

The first-rank percentages were as follows: teachers, 31.3 per cent; clergymen, 27.1 per cent; public officials, 19.1 per cent; merchants, 12.8 per cent; lawyers, 9.7 per cent. Thus, almost a third of the persons polled believed that of these five occupations, teachers are the most import contributors to the life and well-being of the community."

One objective of a study reported by Terrien was to ascertain how the people of one community compared teachers with persons in other occupations. His study, which utilized the interview technique, was based on a 5 per cent random sample, a total of 639 persons, in New London, Connecticut.⁹ Almost 97 per cent of the respondents gave an affirmative answer to this question: "Do you consider high school teaching to be one of the professions?" The problem was then approached by means of a comparison of occupations. Interviewees were asked to state which of the following occupations they considered to be about on the same social level as high-school teaching: (1) factory worker, (2) pharmacist, (3) plumber, (4) executive of large business, (5) policeman, (6) waiter, (7) doctor, (8) shoe clerk, (9) laborer, (10) proprietor of a small business, (11) shop foreman, (12) university professor. Replies are reported in Table 17.

Three out of four interviewees in the Terrien study thought teachers were on the same social level as professional people and proprietors. This statement is based upon the fact that when the first, second, and seventh categories are added, the total represents approximately 75 per cent.

Attention has been focused thus far upon the prestige or social ranking of teachers as revealed by a check list technique. The social class composition of the teaching profession has been studied by another method. W. Lloyd Warner and others have pioneered in status studies made by observers and interviewers

* National Education Association, *Public Opinion Polls on American Education* (Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958), p. 6.

⁹ Frederic W. Terrien, "Who Thinks What About Educators," *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XIX (September, 1953), p. 154. Copyright 1953 by the University of Chicago.

TABLE 17

OPINIONS CONCERNING THE PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS

Category	Per Cent
Professional	44.3
Proprietor	21.9
Clerical	0.0
Service	3.6
Labor	5.0
Disparate choices without pattern	5.6
Choices predominately in both professional and proprietor categories	9.9
No answer	9.7

SOURCE: Frederic W. Terrien, "Who Thinks What About Educators" *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. XIX (September, 1953), p. 154.

who went into selected communities to find out how the residents rated each other. These investigators found remarkable agreement in the class rankings given to teachers by the people in a community, as shown in Table 18.

TABLE 18

SOCIAL CLASS DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN THREE COMMUNITIES

Class	Community		
	"Hometown" Per Cent	"Yankee City" Per Cent	"Old City" Per Cent
Upper-upper	0	2	2.5
Lower-upper	0	1	2.5
Upper-middle	26	76	72.5
Lower-middle	72	21	20.0
Upper-lower	2	0	2.5
Lower-lower	0	0	0.0

SOURCE: Lloyd W. Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated?* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944), p. 100.

These communities, known by the pseudonyms of "Hometown," "Yankee City," and "Old City," are located in widely separated sections of the country. "Hometown" is a county seat in the Corn

Belt of the Middlewest. Its population is 6,000. "Yankee City" with a population of 17,000 is an old, industrial town in New England. "Old City" is in farming territory in the deep South. It has a population of approximately 13,000.

There is remarkable agreement between "Yankee City" and "Old City" as to the social class distribution of teachers. It is likely that the distribution in these two communities is fairly typical of the country as a whole.

The evidence seems to justify these conclusions: (1) Teachers are regarded as professional people; (2) In ranking occupations, teaching is generally rated rather high; (3) Teachers come from different social classes; and (4) The majority of the teachers are accorded either lower-middle or upper-middle class status, depending upon where they live in the United States.

ECONOMIC STATUS OF TEACHERS

The economic status of a group or of an individual is determined by a number of factors. Of primary importance, of course, is income received. Other important considerations are the cost of living, the relation of one's salary to other salaries, and fringe benefits received.

Salaries

The common approach to considerations of teachers' salaries is to compare average wages. This is only one way of looking at teachers' incomes. For example, minimum and maximum salaries, and salary schedules are also of interest to teachers. However, practice varies so much from state to state, and even within states, that any comprehensive treatment of salary questions is practically precluded.

Cognizance should be taken of the fact that the income-producing years of teachers exceed those of most other professions. For example, the expected length of service for a teacher is about 44 years. Assuming an average annual salary of \$7,000, the lifetime earnings of the teacher will exceed \$300,000. On the other hand, the physician spends so much time in preparation for practice that his working years number approximately 35 years and his income from practice will be between \$450,000 and \$550,000. Also, the teacher's income is derived from 9 months of work,

whereas the physician's is based on 12 months per year. Similar comparisons between teaching and other professions will indicate that teachers do rather well when their total lifetime earnings are considered.

Trends in salaries. The direction in which teachers' salaries are moving and the rate of progress are almost as important as the actual amount now paid. The trends that are presented in the following paragraphs reflect somewhat the economic status of teachers, present and future.

1. *Salaries have gradually increased.* In 1929 the average teaching salary was \$1,400 compared with the 1960 average of almost four times that amount. There is every reason to believe this trend upward will continue for the foreseeable future, at least. According to the NEA, "Gains in average salaries of teachers have exceeded increases in the cost of living each year since 1951. Over the past 10 years, gains in teachers' salaries in excess of cost-of-living increases amounted to 41 per cent."¹⁰

2. *The relationship between teachers' salaries and the salaries of all wage earners has remained fairly constant.* In 1929 the average teaching salary of \$1,400 compared favorably with \$1,405 average for all persons working for wages and salaries. The constancy of this relationship is indicated by the fact that in 1953 the averages stood at \$3,615 for teachers and \$3,590 for all wage earners. Approximately the same relationship still prevails, and teachers continue to be in a fairly favorable economic position compared with wage earners as a group.

3. *The gap between average salaries for elementary and secondary teachers has been closing.* In 1930-1931 the average salary for elementary teachers was \$1,868 while it was \$2,412 for high school teachers. The respective averages stood at \$4,025 and \$4,560 in 1957. It is just a matter of time until differentials in salary based on grades or subject matter will disappear if the present trend continues.

4. *Most states have adopted minimum salary schedules for teachers.* Thirty-five states have established by statute or state regulation a minimum salary for teachers. No minimums have

¹⁰ National Education Association, Research Division, "The Financial Rewards of Teaching," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 38, No. 2 (May, 1960), p. 49.

been set in 15 states. The minimum salary laws establish a base below which local school districts may not go in fixing teachers' salaries; any and all districts are permitted to pay more than the minimums specified.

In six states, minimum annual salaries of \$4,000 were required for teachers with the bachelor's degree and no experience in 1960. For the master's degree level, salaries of \$5,000 are required by 12 states.¹¹

5. *The practice of salary differentials based on sex or race has declined.* Men still receive higher salaries than women in many instances. But this practice is apparently changing. In 1941 about half the school systems in the United States provided for salary differentials based on sex. At the present it is estimated that less than 20 per cent of the systems make a difference in men's and women's salaries purely on the basis of sex. Negro teachers were paid less than white teachers in 55 per cent of the school systems in 1941. This percentage as of today, however, has dropped to less than 10 per cent.

6. *Salaries for beginning teachers have increased more than average salaries.* Because of the shortage of teachers, the tendency has been for school systems to increase salaries for beginning teachers faster than for teachers already in service. The higher-paying schools in a state may offer new teachers salaries above the total average. The highest salary offered first-year teachers in the major cities in 1960 was \$5,000 by the city of Chicago, Illinois.

Fringe Benefits for Teachers

A wide variety of fringe benefits are enjoyed by teachers. One of the more important of such benefits is a retirement program.

Teacher retirement-benefit plans are found in all states today. Some cities and some counties provide additional local benefits for retired teachers. Typically, retirement systems are of the joint-contributory type. That is, the teacher contributes a percentage of his salary, and a certain payment is made from tax funds in the teacher's behalf. In many states, teachers participate in the Social

¹¹ National Education Association, Research Division, "State Minimum-Salary Laws," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 38, No. 1 (February, 1960), p. 25.

Security program as a supplement to the state retirement plan.¹²

Other fringe benefits include sick leave, substitute teacher service, vacation pay, and insurance programs. Policies governing these benefits vary from school system to school system and from state to state. As a matter of fact, many schools still do not provide all of these fringe benefits. Progress is being made, however, toward the development of more adequate personnel policies that provide desirable fringe benefits for teachers.

Salaries of College Teachers

The American Association of University Professors reported a study of college teachers' salaries in 1960. Thirty-three privately controlled institutions and five large state universities were included in the study. The findings indicated weighted mean salaries for 9 or 10 months as follows: ¹³ (1) in privately controlled institutions, professors, \$11,921; associate professors, \$8,351; assistant professors, \$6,602; and instructors, \$5,290; (2) in the five large state universities, professors, \$12,055; associate professors, \$8,695; assistant professors, \$6,959; and instructors, \$5,290.

LEGAL STATUS OF TEACHERS

The position of the teacher is affected by laws in various ways. He is legally regarded as a "public servant," an employee of the school district; he must have a license issued by the state; and in most states he may acquire tenure in his position.

Teacher as Employee of School District

The courts have ruled, throughout the United States, that the teacher is a public employee. This means that he is subject to certain laws with respect to his employment and in the performance of his duties. School laws, for example, in most states require a written contract between the teacher and the school board. A special contract form is even provided in 14 states, the use of which is mandatory. In 17 other states a recommended form is

¹² For details concerning retirement plans, see National Education Association, "How to Evaluate Retirement Allowances," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 38, No. 2 (May, 1960) pp. 60-63.

¹³ American Association of University Professors, "Instructional Salaries in 39 Selected Colleges and Universities for the Academic Year 1959-1960," *AAUP Bulletin*, Vol. 40, No. 1 (Spring, 1960), p. 28.

issued to local boards by the state department of education.

Another way in which teachers are affected by legal regulations is by the procedure established for their employment. In most instances, the school board is established as the employing agency; yet it can only issue contracts to individuals who have been recommended by the superintendent of schools. Whether required or not, this practice is recognized as desirable since it assures that the decision to employ a teacher will be made by a professional person. It also clarifies, for the person seeking a position, the channels through which an application should be made—namely, to the superintendent of schools, not to the school board.

The teacher as an employee of the school district is subject to the regulations adopted by the local school board. In fact, policies duly adopted by the local school board have the effect of state law. This is true because education is a function of the state of which the local school board acts as an arm. Of course, local school policies must be compatible with state laws and regulations.

The practice by school boards of putting their policies into written form and making them available to teachers and citizens is becoming more prevalent. Such statements when available help teachers to understand what is expected of them and the procedures to be followed in discharging their duties. They are particularly helpful to those considering employment in a school system.

Certification of Teachers

To practice any profession, a legal license is required; teaching is no exception.¹⁴ State legislatures assume the legal power to issue certificates for teaching in elementary and secondary schools. Typically, however, administrative authority to carry out this function is delegated to state boards or departments of education.

Teaching certificates are granted upon the presentation of evidence that the requirements for teaching have been satisfactorily met. The college diploma and transcript and in some states a more extensive report by the preparing institution are the types of evidence necessary. Specific requirements of course work in fields such as liberal arts, the subject fields to be taught, and professional

¹⁴ The details regarding certification were presented in Ch. 8; certification is therefore mentioned here only as it reflects the legal status of teachers.

education vary somewhat from state to state; the trend, however, is toward standardization.¹⁵ In general, specified distributions in course patterns are stated in terms of minimum semester hours acceptable in an area. In some states special regulations have been imposed by legislative action. These may require the study of particular fields, as, for example, American history or a subject of local importance. An increasing number of states also require evidence of good health, particularly of freedom from communicable disease, for certification.

Teacher Tenure

An unusual characteristic of the teaching profession is the degree to which its members are assured permanence of position, either by local or state regulations or statutes. Thirty-eight states now maintain laws which protect the employment of teachers. These vary considerably, but all relate both to how tenure status may be achieved and to the circumstances under which dismissals are permitted.

Tenure is attained usually after two or three years of probationary work. At that time, the individual must either be given a tenure position or released. After the status of tenure is granted, dismissal can be for legally satisfactory cause only. Such reasons typically include: incompetence, insubordination, immorality, neglect of duty, abolition of position or, a catchall clause, "for other just and good reasons."

Various types of tenure are found in the United States. These are known by such technical names as "spring notification type of continuing contract," "indefinite tenure," "tenure by school board resolution," and "term contract."¹⁶ Under the spring-notification type of tenure, teachers are automatically re-employed unless notified by a given date in the spring of nonrenewal of contract. The teacher on indefinite tenure can be dismissed for cause only after due process of law. Tenure by school board resolution means that in the absence of pertinent state laws the local school board enunciates a policy providing indefinite tenure for

¹⁵ Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification*, 22nd ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957-1958), p. 125.

¹⁶ For a discussion of details about teacher tenure see B. J. Chandler and Paul V. Petty, *Personnel Management in School Administration* (Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Company, 1955), Ch. 12.

teachers. The term contract covers a specified length of time during which the teacher may not be dismissed, except for just cause.

A phase of the professional aspects of preparation for teaching involves the study of tenure provisions as well as court decisions pertaining to teacher employment. The object is to prepare the individual for the working conditions and to help him understand the protections that will be available to him.

SUMMARY

Status—a person's place in the prestige system of society—is important to teachers. Occupational groups that are accorded high status usually enjoy a good income and other benefits. Also, members of an occupational group like to feel that society is appreciative.

Throughout the history of the United States, the general status of teachers has varied considerably. The teacher and his profession have been treated differently in fiction, the records of history, and the traditions transmitted from one generation to the next. Although the picture reflected has ranged from ridicule to veneration, the trend has consistently been toward more respect and substantially greater appreciation both for teachers individually and for the profession as a whole.

Teachers come from a wide range of socioeconomic backgrounds. Teaching as a profession appears to provide opportunity for social mobility for at least 40 per cent of those who enter the field.

When people are asked to rank teaching and other occupations on a prestige scale, they consistently give teachers high standing. With regard to social status, teachers are regarded as professional people. Teachers belong to different social classes, but the majority of them are accorded upper-middle class status.

The economic status of teachers may be ascertained from an analysis of salary trends and fringe benefits in relation to income received by members of other professions. In total lifetime earnings, teaching compares favorably with other professions. Then, too, teachers enjoy a wide variety of fringe benefits, such as retirement programs, sick leave, vacation pay, and insurance programs.

In addition to social and economic status, teachers are con-

cerned with certain legal matters. The teacher is legally classified as a public employee and as such is subject to the policies adopted by the school board. He must have a certificate or license issued to him by authority of the state. Tenure laws, passed in most states, spell out the conditions under which a teacher may be dismissed. While tenure statutes vary considerably throughout the United States, they usually indicate that permanent teachers may be dismissed for cause only.

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PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN TEACHING

For the intellectually able, the emotionally stable, and the socially sensitive and mature person, teaching literally is a wide-open professional field. Not only are good positions available in classroom teaching assignments in elementary and secondary schools, the experienced and successful teacher who prepares for leadership in education may advance rapidly to work in such specialities as guidance, supervision, administration, or teacher education. In addition, for the highly qualified and specialized, opportunities in research, preparation of instructional materials, work in remediation, special education, or as a school psychologist are numerous. Analyses of career patterns of those already in the profession will reveal that advancement in teaching is relatively rapid, variety of experience is easily obtainable, and security factors are maximum.

OPPORTUNITIES IN CLASSROOM TEACHING

An estimated shortage of almost 300,000 qualified teachers exists today. This deficit of qualified personnel has several possible implications for the prospective teacher. In the first place, the new teacher is likely to have considerable choice of locality and school system. Secondly, advancement in the profession will be rapid for the able, ambitious, and well-prepared teacher.

Teaching positions are of four major types: elementary, secondary, college, and business or other type of technical institutions. In addition, new experiments with instructional teams promise to differentiate teaching functions by type, level of competence, and perhaps in terms of remuneration.

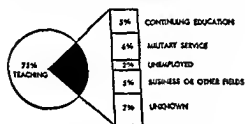
Elementary School Teaching Positions

For the next five to ten years, approximately 100,000 new elementary teachers will be needed each year for public and private

schools. At the present time, somewhere near 50,000 students prepared for elementary school teaching positions are graduated each year. Of this number, if past experience can be relied on to predict the future, about 25 per cent will not enter teaching. The occupations entered by those who receive a bachelor's degree in elementary education in a typical year are estimated to be distributed as indicated in Figure 22.

The dimensions of the shortage of elementary school teachers are further established by these facts: (1) The class size in many situations is so large that additional teachers are needed to carry present loads adequately; (2) At least 60,000 teachers now in service need to be replaced by persons who are fully qualified; and (3) Nearly 100,000 teachers leave the profession each year

MEN GRADUATES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION



WOMEN GRADUATES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

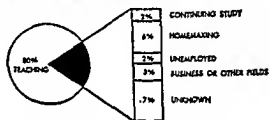


FIGURE 22.

ESTIMATED OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF B.A. DEGREE GRADUATES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN A TYPICAL YEAR

through retirement, the acceptance of jobs outside the profession, or to raise a family. In short, the demand for elementary teachers greatly exceeds the supply and promises to continue to do so.

Possibilities for employment in nursery schools and at the kindergarten level are extremely good for the years ahead. It is estimated that 1,000,000 children are now enrolled in public kindergartens alone, not counting those in private schools. Both kindergarten and nursery schools are likely to expand in the next decade or two, bringing about increased opportunities for teaching in these fields.

Teaching Positions in Secondary Schools

Until recent years, the demand for high school teachers has remained fairly stable. Beginning about 1957-1958 the post-World

War II population increase began reaching secondary schools. It is reasonable to expect the demand for secondary school teachers to increase for some years to come.

The distribution of those prepared for high school teaching does not match existing positions very well. The number of positions available in some subject fields is greater than in others. This fact is substantiated by a study reported recently, as summarized in Table 19.

TABLE 19

INDEX OF DEMAND BY TEACHING FIELDS FOR THE UNITED STATES

Rank	Teaching Field	Demand	Supply	Index ^a
1	Library Science	391	125	313
2	Physics	195	89	219
3	Mathematics	2,637	1,516	174
4	General Science	1,666	1,036	161
5	Chemistry	386	302	126
6	English	4,125	3,261	126
		612	641	95
7	Foreign Language	902	1,092	83
8	Women's Physical Education	1,540	2,092	74
9	Music	1,526	2,147	71
10	Home Economics	565	619	69
11	Art	1,642	2,702	68
12	Commerce	735	1,144	64
13	Biology	965	1,578	61
14	Industrial Arts	37	64	58
15	Journalism	2,708	4,885	55
16	Social Studies	1,591	3,423	46
17	Men's Physical Education	387	669	45
18	Agriculture	259	687	38
19	Speech			

^a Indexes are expressed as the per cent of supply represented by demand.

SOURCE: Martin H. Bartels, "The Index of Teacher Demand for 1958," *Journal of Teacher Education*, Vol. XI, No. 1 (March, 1960), p. 17.

Bartels worked out indexes to show the relationship between supply and demand for the various teaching fields in secondary schools. The quotient is expressed as a per cent of the supply the

demand represents. The result is expressed as an index number. Therefore, a high index number signified a large demand in relation to supply for a particular teaching field. A low index number indicates the opposite, a small demand in relation to supply.

Balance is lacking between the number and types of existing positions and the distribution of individuals prepared for various teaching fields. Library science and general science teachers have been in short supply for several years. Teachers for men's physical education, art, and speech are in greater supply than are teachers for other fields. While the data in Table 19 do not provide an infallible guide to the prospective high school teacher, they do serve as a reminder that one should study the relationship between supply and demand when he selects a teaching field in which to major. These indexes may not, of course, be applicable to a particular state or region; nor will they take into account the increasing demand for high school teachers to serve growing enrollments.

Additional insight into the relative opportunities open in high school teaching is provided by the information about the total number of students preparing to teach various fields which is presented in Table 20.

TABLE 20

**TOTAL NUMBER OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS
COMPLETING STANDARD REQUIREMENTS FOR TEACHING,
BY SEX, IN 1960, COMPARED WITH 1959**

High School Teaching Field	1960			1959 Total	1959 to 1960	
	Men	Women	Total		Net change	Per cent change
Agriculture	1,485	17	1,502	1,513	-11	-0.7%
Art	948	1,760	2,708	2,406	+302	+12.6
Commerce	3,022	4,394	7,416	6,481	+935	+14.4
English	2,768	6,656	9,424	8,195	+1,229	+15.0
Foreign languages	729	1,471	2,200	1,817	+383	+21.1
Home economics	1	4,957	4,958	4,720	+238	+5.0
Industrial arts	3,893	92	3,985	3,830	+155	+4.0
Journalism	28	48	76	74	+2	+2.7
Library science	43	325	368	453	-85	-18.8
Mathematics	3,778	1,872	5,650	4,283	+1,367	+31.9
Music	2,536	2,931	5,467	5,036	+431	+8.6
Phys. ed. (men)	7,753	—	7,753	7,189	+564	+7.8

TABLE 20 Continued

High School Teaching Field	1960			1959 Total	1959 to 1960	
	Men	Women	Total		Net change	Per cent change
Phys. ed. (women)	—	3,186	3,186	2,805	+381	+13.6
Science	5,528	2,269	7,797	6,167	+1,630	+26.4
General science	2,540	953	3,493	2,698	+795	+29.5
Biology	1,850	952	2,802	2,382	+420	+17.6
Chemistry	687	270	957	693	+264	+38.1
Physics	451	94	545	394	+151	+38.3
Social sciences	8,986	4,585	13,571	12,366	+1,205	+9.7
Speech	723	1,201	1,924	1,819	+105	+5.8
Other	1,162	1,318	2,480	2,431	+49	+2.0
Total	43,383	37,082	80,465	71,585	+8,880	+12.4

SOURCE: Maul, Ray C. "The Teacher Shortage Persists," *American School Board Journal*, May, 1960, p. 18.

It is significant that an increase is reflected in the number preparing for all but one of the teaching fields listed. This trend has continued for several years. In fact, the class of 1960 produced 129,200 newly eligible teachers, an increase of slightly more than 8 per cent over 1959. The greatest gains in the number prepared to teach were in subjects where shortages have been the most severe, indicating that the supply and demand principle works in the field of education. Increases from 1959 to 1960, for example, were: mathematics teachers, 32 per cent; chemistry and physics, 38 per cent; and foreign languages, 21 per cent.

Approximately one of every three who prepares to teach in secondary schools does not enter teaching upon graduation from college. The occupations of bachelor's degree graduates prepared to teach in secondary schools are shown for a typical year, in Figure 23.

The person preparing to teach in a secondary school should seek information about teacher supply and demand conditions in the locality where he would like to teach.¹ He should find out, in particular, which combinations of subjects are in greatest demand. For example, English and history, biology and physical

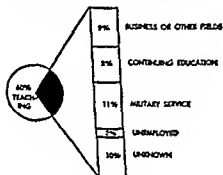
¹ No inference should be drawn that one should not prepare to teach in a field that is already adequately supplied. There is always room for outstanding teachers, whatever the field. The able and ambitious person can make a place for himself in any teaching field he chooses.

education, and science and mathematics have been fairly popular combinations. The teacher placement officer of the college or university and the faculty adviser are reliable sources of information about supply and demand conditions.

Teaching Positions in Colleges or Universities

The tidal wave of students that hit elementary schools about 1950 and high schools six to eight years later, has reached the colleges now. Statistics reveal that colleges and universities are going to be hard pressed to find an adequate number of instructors in the

Men Graduates in Secondary Education



Women Graduates in Secondary Education

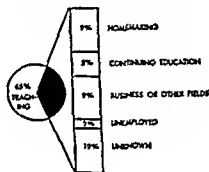


FIGURE 23.

ESTIMATED OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF B.A. DEGREE GRADUATES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN A TYPICAL YEAR

years ahead. Consider these facts. About one-third of the college-age youth are now enrolled in institutions of higher learning. During the past 20 years the percentage of college-age youth who have actually gone on to higher education has increased each year. If one assumes that the increase will continue, approximately 7 million students will be enrolled in institutions of higher learning at the undergraduate level by 1970-1971. This number is about double the size of present enrollments. It follows that the need for teachers will also increase proportionately during the next 10 to 15 years.

Salaries for college teachers are improving. The best professors in the highest-paying institutions earn as much as \$25,000 per year and, in addition, royalties and consulting fees.² Such salaries

² The median salaries of professors in two leading universities was between \$18,000 and \$16,500 for the academic year of 1959-1960, according to the

go only to a few, however. Even though college teachers are now earning higher salaries, many of them continue to receive tempting offers from business and industry. Consequently, as is true in elementary and secondary schools, some college teachers leave classrooms each year for other employment, thus adding to the shortage of personnel prepared to teach in colleges and universities.

Colleges and universities prefer that teaching staff members have earned a doctorate, or at least a master's degree. Young people who wish to find their career in college teaching would do well to start graduate work as soon as possible after finishing the bachelor's degree. Graduate work is expensive and takes time. The earlier a future college teacher can begin his graduate work, the better for him usually.

Other Teaching Positions

The practice of arranging special classes, or even special schools, for exceptional children has increased during the past few years. Typical examples are classes for the mentally retarded, the physically handicapped, the emotionally disturbed, and the academically talented. These special classes demand teachers with preparation that differs somewhat from that of the regular classroom teacher.

Another type of specialization open to teachers in such fields as art, music, physical education, science, and foreign language is teaching or assisting classroom teachers with these subjects in the elementary school. Most larger schools employ such personnel, usually at higher rates of pay. Those so assigned typically work at various grade levels and often in different schools. In Hagerstown, Maryland, for example, specialists in art, music, and science supplement the work of regular classroom teachers with closed-circuit television presentations.

Other types of specialization for teachers include speech correctionist, occupational therapist, critic teacher in a college laboratory school or in a school system to which student teachers are assigned, correspondence teachers, visiting teachers, remedial reading specialists, and evaluation specialists.

Television Teaching

Educational television has made much progress since 1953 when the Pittsburgh school system pioneered in experimenting with this medium. By 1960, almost 600 school districts were making use of televised instruction. In addition, more than 100 colleges and universities offered credit for televised courses, and approximately 150 educational institutions operated closed-circuit systems.

Figure 24 presents a sample composition of a local instructional team which has been visualized with the possibility of supplementation at the national level. The scheme is now in the experimental stages.

Practical use of television and other electronic teaching aids will require innovations in the design of school buildings. Multi-purpose classrooms are necessary. Provisions have to be made for the installation and effective use of television equipment, teaching machines, and other electronic educational aids.

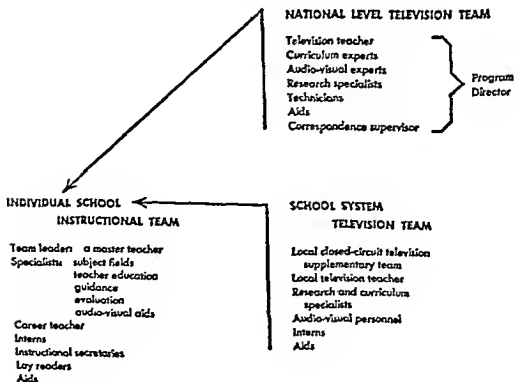


FIGURE 24.

POSSIBLE PERSONNEL IN INSTRUCTIONAL TEAMS AT SCHOOL, SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND NATIONAL LEVELS

Tentative, and as yet only preliminary, theoretical and practical approaches have been made to the problem of school design that will make television teaching possible. The Educational Facilities Laboratories has visualized the school of the future in their publication *Design for ETV*. Some of the features of this school of the future are part of the plan of the North Hagerstown High School in Maryland, a school that has pioneered in television teaching.

Team Teaching

Newer developments in the utilization of instructional teams to teach large groups of students, with the objective of providing for a better employment of various types and levels of teacher competence, suggest opportunities for advancement in teaching that may become more generally available in the future. The variety of possible teaching assignments made possible by team teaching suggests that teaching is moving toward a type of differentiation of personnel that has been accomplished in the field of medicine and is now being developed for engineering.

A good example of a successful use of the instructional team approach is provided by Evanston, Illinois, Township High School. In Evanston High School teachers "team up" to share teaching responsibilities in courses in English, social studies, mathematics, and other subjects. The instructional team approach is based upon the belief that:²

... some lessons lend themselves well to large-group instruction and others to that of small groups, the teachers divide the students into various sized groups, according to the types of lessons to be taught. For example, for films, demonstrations, lectures, and full-period examinations or impromptu writing, several sections of the same class scheduled the same period meet together in a large "community" room as a "C-group." On the other hand, for discussions the usual pattern is to divide the pupils into normal-sized classes or even smaller.

Evanston has used team teaching since 1957. It is likely that this innovation will be adopted by more and more elementary and secondary schools across the country. Already, reports of favorable

² Evanston Township High School, *Here's Your High School*, Vol. 10, No. 1 (November, 1959), p. 3.

experience with team teaching have come from such widely dispersed localities as Lexington, Massachusetts; Norwalk, Connecticut; and Englewood, Florida.⁴

Positions in Administration and Supervision

Men and women with superior training, experience, and competencies serve in executive posts, such as superintendent of schools, principal, department head, supervisor, or consultant. Just as in other professions, opportunities are plentiful for those with advanced preparation who have the ability to lead others. Such positions typically pay higher salaries and permit the individual to exercise extensive responsibility for an educational program.

What kind of salaries do administrators and supervisors earn? They are surprisingly good ones even when compared to earnings in other fields. In 1959-1960, superintendents of schools in urban districts over 500,000 in population earned, on the average, \$25,000 per year. In Chicago, the superintendent has been awarded a salary commitment by the Board of Education that will result in a salary of \$42,500. Many school principals make \$10,000 to \$15,000 per year, and the top range for supervisors is from \$7,500 to \$11,000. Administrative salaries are attractive, as indicated in Table 21.

Good salaries, however, are not the only attractive features of work in educational administration and supervision. Such positions carry a high level of prestige and permit broad and extensive leadership in an important professional field. The work permits close association with community leaders and members of the teaching force. There are ample opportunities for creativeness, exercise of skill in human relations, guidance and development of teacher personnel, and influencing the direction of the program of education. In short, administration and supervision are prized fields of professional endeavor open to the capable teacher who prepares for them.

The strategic position of the school administrator in American communities has motivated the Kellogg Foundation to allocate, since 1950, over \$6,000,000 to programs designed to improve school administration.⁵ Organizations such as the Committee for

⁴ Robert H. Anderson, "Three Experiments in Team Teaching," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 65, No. 5 (May, 1960), p. 62.

⁵ For a summary of achievements that have resulted, see Hollis A. Moore, Jr., *Studies in School Administration* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1957).

TABLE 21

SALARIES FOR ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

Position	Medians of Scheduled Maximum Salaries		
	Group I ^a	Group II ^b	Group III ^c
Elementary school supervising principal	\$9,600	\$8,800	\$8,736
Junior high school principal	9,902	9,400	9,113
Senior high school principal	10,653	10,500	10,030
Counselor	7,700	7,957	7,675
Head of department	8,230	7,900	7,496
Supervisor	9,518	9,060	6,200
Director	11,996	10,809	9,350
Superintendent	25,000	18,000	15,000

^a School districts in cities with population of 500,000 or over

^b School districts in cities with population of 100,000 to 499,999

^c School districts in cities with population of 30,000 to 99,999

SOURCE: Adapted from National Education Association, Research Division, "Top Salaries for School Administrators," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 38, No. 2 (May, 1960), p. 57.

the Advancement of School Administration and the University Council for Educational Administration are concentrating on the improvement of educational leadership for America's schools.

Capable people are being sought continually for administrative and supervisory positions. School systems compete vigorously for individuals who are prepared for leadership responsibilities.

Positions in State Departments of Education

Each state maintains a state department of education which is staffed usually with former teachers, administrators, and supervisors. Salaries for positions in state departments of education vary from state to state. Usually state department personnel make slightly more than the better-paid teachers in the state.

Research, Writing, Lecturing, and Consulting Opportunities

Opportunities in the educational field include research, writing, lecturing, and consulting. These opportunities may be in school

systems, in business or industrial concerns, or in other organizations, such as civic or fraternal associations. Also, highly talented individuals go into one or more of these activities on a free-lance or entrepreneur basis. Successful experience as a professional educator is an aid to success in any of these fields.

The diversity of opportunities is indicated by the fact that an estimated \$12,430,000,000 was spent for research and development in 1959-1960. Industry led the way with the expenditure of \$9,400,000,000, as indicated in Figure 25.

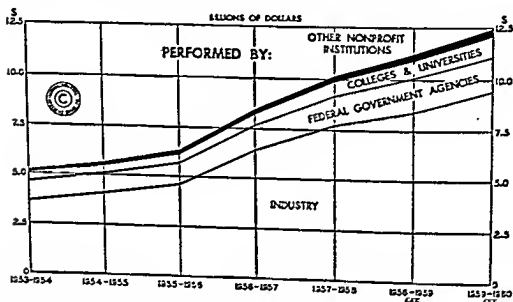


FIGURE 25.

EXPENDITURES FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT, 1953-1960

From National Industrial Conference Board, *Road Maps of Industry*, No. 1256 (January 22, 1960).

The exact work and expected income in research, writing, lecturing, and consulting varies to such an extent that reliable descriptions and accurate statistics cannot be provided. Suffice it to say that opportunities do exist and some people derive lucrative incomes from them.

List of Educational Positions

The positions that have been discussed in the foregoing pages account for perhaps 90 to 95 per cent of the career opportunities in the profession of teaching. There are additional opportunities

which should be mentioned, however. The following list, which is extensive but by no means complete, gives an idea of the number and variety of opportunities for teachers.

I. Elementary schools—including nursery and kindergarten

- A. Classroom teacher
- B. Teacher of special subjects, such as music or art
- C. Teacher of a subject in a departmentalized school
- D. Teacher of exceptional children
- E. Critic teacher in a laboratory school
- F. Visiting teacher
- G. Supervisor
- H. Consultant
- I. Director of Research
- J. Hearing therapist
- K. Librarian
- L. Speech correctionist
- M. School psychologist
- N. Assistant principal
- O. Principal

II. Secondary schools

- A. Teacher of subject such as social studies or English
- B. Department head
- C. Guidance director
- D. Athletic coach
- E. Supervisor
- F. Librarian
- G. Visiting teacher
- H. Consultant
- I. Critic teacher in laboratory school
- J. Assistant principal
- K. Principal

III. Administrative and general services

- A. Superintendent of schools
- B. Assistant superintendent
- C. Director of research
- D. School psychologist
- E. Attendance officer
- F. Director, special fields such as public relations or audio-visual materials
- G. Vocational counselor

IV. *College or university*

- A. Teacher
- B. Critic teacher in laboratory school
- C. Head of department
- D. Principal of laboratory school
- E. Dean of men
- F. Dean of women
- G. Business manager
- H. Registrar
- I. Director, special functions such as placement, public relations, and development
- J. Dean of a college
- K. Director of research
- L. Assistant dean
- M. Field worker in admissions
- N. Alumni secretary
- O. Vice-president
- P. President

V. *State Departments of Education and U.S. Office of Education*

- A. Supervisor, special fields such as secondary education
- B. Director of division
- C. Assistant state superintendent
- D. Superintendent of public instruction
- E. Assistant commissioner of education
- F. Commissioner of Education of the United States
- G. Consultant to foreign governments through I.C.A.

VI. *Professional associations, such as state education associations and NEA*

- A. Field worker
- B. Staff member
- C. Research worker and writer
- D. Director of division
- E. Executive secretary

VII. *Educational director or consultant to noneducational organizations*

- A. Business or industrial firms
- B. Chambers of commerce
- C. Service agencies, such as heart fund
- D. Religious organizations
- E. Director of recreation
- F. Camping sponsored by various agencies

- G. Youth groups—YMCA, YWCA
- H. Instructor in a hospital
- I. UNESCO
- J. Boy and Girl Scouts
- K. Labor organizations

VIII. *Other opportunities*

- A. Free-lance writer
- B. Member of educational consulting firm
- C. Research worker
- D. Employee of foundation
- E. Teacher in adult education program
- F. Free-lance lecturer
- G. Teacher in church or Bible school

One conclusion stands out at this point. Preparation for the teaching profession qualifies an individual for many and diverse opportunities. A corollary is that positions exist in education that pay well and provide highly satisfactory work. Success in the educational field awaits those who have intelligence, personality, health, and the will to work hard.

CAREER PATTERNS OF TEACHERS

The phenomenon of career patterns of teachers has not been completely understood by educators. Consequently, this subject has not yet been dealt with very realistically. For example, teacher recruitment efforts and discussions of the teacher shortage have been predicated upon what "ought" to be rather than upon what is. An examination of the career pattern concept and types of career patterns will illustrate the point.

What Is a Career Pattern?

Some authorities contend that the term *career pattern* does not have a single, precise meaning. As employed here, however, it is intended to mean "the sequence of occupations in which a person engages throughout his lifetime." Within this definition a person may change assignments while remaining in the same position. Similarly, he may retain his professional assignment but change positions. To illustrate, an individual may change from third-grade teacher to second-grade teacher (change of assignment) and still

remain in his position in the same school (as a teacher). Or, a teacher of third grade may move from one school to another, thus changing positions but not changing his professional assignment.

Types of Career Patterns

Career patterns are of various types. Super has identified the types as follows:⁶

1. For Men:

The *stable* career pattern involves no trial or exploration on the job; the individual moves directly from school or college into a life-work, for example, as an engineer or in his family business. The *unstable* career pattern is one in which the individual begins conventionally, is uprooted or displaces himself, explores or tries one or more other short-lived jobs, and then settles down for some time before being displaced and going through the process again. The *multiple-trial* pattern involves no stabilizing, but a sequence of short-lived often unrelated, jobs.

2. For Women:

... conventional, stable-working, stable-homemaking, double-track, interrupted, unstable, and multiple-trial. Of these the first two and last two are like those with similar names in the men's group. The *stable-homemaking* category is self-explanatory. The *double-track* career pattern is that of the woman who holds a job and maintains a home simultaneously, perhaps with occasional time out for childbearing. And the *interrupted* career pattern is that of the woman who holds a job for some time, gives it up to be a full-time homemaker for a period of years, and later returns to the labor market after her husband has died.

The two types of career patterns common to teaching are the double-track and the interrupted. In the double-track pattern, the married woman serves as a teacher and at the same time as a housewife. The interrupted career is also common in teaching. The married woman teacher takes time out from her teaching career to raise a family, and when her children reach school age she resumes her work as a teacher.

⁶ Donald Super, "Education and the Nature of Occupations and Careers," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 58, No. 6 (March, 1957), p. 304.

Career Patterns in Teaching

The major reason career patterns in teaching have not yet been clearly defined stems from the fact that about three-fourths of all teachers in the United States are women. Of this majority, over half are, or have been married. The increase in married women has been rapid since the depression days of the 1930's when single status was required for women teachers by most school boards. In 1940, only 31 per cent of women teachers were married, as compared to 56 per cent at present. Thus, education is becoming a promising field for women who wish to follow a double-track or interrupted career pattern. This characteristic gives teaching a distinct advantage over many other careers for women which are not adapted to such career plans. Increasingly, this fact is being recognized, not only by young women who are considering preparation for teaching, but also by the profession which is becoming aware that women in teaching can, provided their attitudes toward their careers are healthy and their commitments sound, build a stronger profession.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT PROFESSIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN THE YEARS AHEAD

A promising future lies ahead for teachers, according to present indications. Some indications are: (1) increasing population, (2) improving working conditions, and (3) increasing emphasis upon the importance of education.

Population Is Increasing

An increasing population means that additional teachers will be needed. The number of births has been climbing since the close of World War II, as indicated by the pattern in Figure 26.

The number of births increased from just under 3 million in 1944 to approximately 4.3 million in 1959. Indications are that the peak in the birth rate has not been reached. At the present rate of growth, over 4 million per year, and assuming 30 pupils to a classroom, approximately 135,000 additional classroom teachers will be needed each year just to take care of increased enrollments. Another 125,000-150,000 will be required each year to replace

teachers who retire, die, or leave the profession for some other reason. In short, teaching positions will be plentiful in the coming years if conditions continue as they are now.

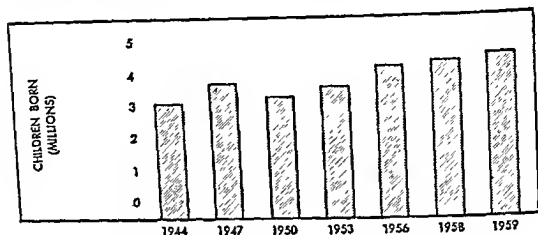


FIGURE 26.

NUMBER OF BIRTHS, UNITED STATES, 1944-1959

Working Conditions of Teachers Are Improving

Efforts are being made constantly to improve the working conditions of teachers. This trend will affect the profession in several ways. For example, as welfare and working conditions improve, more people will be attracted to teaching. Some of the improvements being made will necessitate additional teachers and specialists. One illustration of this factor is the trend toward the reduction of the number of pupils assigned to each teacher. The teacher-pupil ratio has declined from 30.1 in 1929-1930 to 27 today.

Teachers' salaries have been increasing annually at the rate of 5 to 10 per cent from the increments provided in adopted schedules. Although beginning salaries are still below those paid college graduates in fields such as engineering and business, when the working time is equated and the long-term increments calculated, the remuneration of teachers is more closely approaching salaries in other professions for similar amounts of preparation. It is unrealistic, for example, to compare salaries for teachers who have completed only four years of college with the income of members of the medical profession whose preparation required a minimum

of eight to ten years. On the other hand, the number of working years of teachers, since their life expectancy is exceeded only by ministers, is considerably greater than those available to people in some other professions.

It is believed by many educators that substantial improvements will be made in the teaching profession itself in the years ahead. Standards for admission to the profession are being raised each year. Salaries are advancing at a steady pace. More men are becoming teachers each year. The profession is improving, thereby making teaching a more desirable career, and the need for good teachers is clearly evident.

Emphasis upon Education Is Increasing

Even though education has always been regarded as important and necessary in a democracy such as that of the United States, a number of events has caused a reawakening of the American people to the critical importance of schools and the work of teachers. First of all, the cold war has convinced thoughtful Americans that the real battlefield between democracy and communism is to be found in the schools, colleges, and universities. Because of the scientific race with Russia, intellectuals, including teachers, are being accorded new stature. They are more highly regarded now than they have been in many years.

Economic conditions are lending a new importance to the contribution of schools. In an era of automation, education is absolutely essential. As machines become more complex, an increasing emphasis upon better education is imperative. Also, it is a well-recognized fact that the standard of living of a people and the educational level advance simultaneously. As automation increases man's productive capacity, his consuming capacity must also increase. The relationship between the consuming capacity of a people and their educational level is well known.

Another reason education is receiving a new emphasis stems from social developments. The crisis suffered by the people of the United States during World War II and the cold war that followed and the fact that America has been catapulted into leadership of the free world have caused a re-examination of our system of values. There is renewed energy in the United States to come closer to realization of the ideal of equality of educational

opportunity. Then, too, the value placed upon material things is being challenged by the new emphasis upon humanitarian objectives. Education is benefiting from the current re-examination of values. Consequently, the future for teachers is brighter than it has been for some time.

SUMMARY

The profession of teaching holds promising opportunities for *capable* young people who are willing to work. Good positions are available in classroom teaching, supervision, administration, research, and consulting.

The demand for classroom teachers is enormous. Approximately 100,000 new elementary school teachers are needed each year, but only 50,000 students prepared for teaching are graduated each year. Of the graduates prepared for elementary school teaching only 74.2 per cent of the men and 81.9 per cent of the women actually enter the profession upon graduation.

The supply and demand imbalance is not so pronounced in the secondary field as in elementary education. The problem at the secondary level is that balance is lacking between the number and types of existing positions and the distribution of individuals prepared for the various teaching fields.

Colleges and universities are diligently seeking additional faculty members. It is estimated that the demand for college teachers will double in the next decade. Outstanding students who are willing and able to prepare themselves for college teaching will find many opportunities awaiting them.

In addition to regular classroom teaching positions, many opportunities are available for various types of specialists. Teachers with special preparation are needed to work with exceptional children, to serve as critic teacher, speech correctionist, occupational therapist, visiting teacher, department head, principal, or superintendent and as television or team teachers.

Men in education usually follow what is known as a *stable* career pattern. That is, they move directly from college into the lifework of education. Women, on the other hand, usually follow one of three career patterns—*stable-working*, *double-track*, or *interrupted*.

Certain conditions indicate a bright future for teachers. The

population of the United States continues to increase. Working conditions of teachers are improving. The great reawakening of the American people to the critical importance of schools and the work of teachers that has occurred in the present decade augurs well for the future of talented and ambitious individuals who select teaching as their profession.

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SATISFACTION
IN TEACHING

The theme of this concluding chapter could very well be, in the words of Chaucer, "And gladly wolde he lerne, and gladly teach." The good teacher learns throughout his lifetime. He carries on this function not just for the sake of scholarship itself; he learns in order to teach. What satisfactions, then, does the teacher derive from his work, if he would "gladly teach"?

This is a legitimate and important question. It is one that should be considered seriously by any person who is attempting to select his life's work. How does one go about answering it? This discussion is about teaching; consequently, the appropriate question is, what are the satisfactions in teaching?

Observers of the American scene and of teachers have helped to answer this question. What do they say about teachers? What are the satisfactions in teaching that can be observed and verified? Finally, what is the relationship between self-realization and teaching?

TEACHING AS APPRAISED BY OTHERS

One important way to judge the satisfactions in a profession is to study what people say about its practitioners. In the final analysis, man has a yearning and need for approbation of his fellow men. He wants to spend his life in work significant not only to himself but to others as well.

The importance of education has been widely emphasized. Now, what about teachers? What do people think of teachers? Of course there is no definitive answer to such a question. But sample opinions illustrate what some nationally known persons think of teachers and their influence.

The first statement is made up of excerpts from an article written by the well known "hobo kid." The author, Billie Davis, is the

daughter of itinerant workers who made furniture from willows. She is a well-known writer and lecturer.¹

... When I was a small ragged hobo, sitting on the ground beside a campfire, hungrily licking the fishy oil from the lid of a sardine can as I studied my history lesson, I was beginning to understand the relationship between public education and personal liberty. That is why I am surprised and disturbed at what seems to be a popular lack of appreciation for our schools today. Somehow the prevalent attitude awakens within me a little fighting urge. I want to tell the American people something about our schools—something they must have forgotten. Or it may be that some have never recognized that which I consider to be the greatest value of our system. I want to make certain that they recognize it now, and I can show them plainly by telling them my story.

... Every school held for me a mystical secret beauty. Every school was my personal friend. It wanted me. There were laws that said so. It wanted to make me smart and pretty and smooth, like the people who lived in houses. And in each town I strolled serenely up the walk to the school building, almost forgetting that I was a camper. I found a teacher and said again, as I had on that first day, "I would like to go to school here, please."

Without exception, I was greeted with kindness. Of course there were some startled exclamations, some smiles and some slightly irritated mutters. . . . All this talk of poorly trained, underpaid teachers, striving for the privilege of becoming mechanical robots enslaved by some insensitive assembly line for a good union wage per hour, cannot drive from my mind the memory of the teachers who have shaped my life. There was Miss Williams kind and motherly, who let me stay in at recess and water her plants. She had found me hiding in the fire escape. It was a big round pipe on the outside of the building, through which pupils could slide to the ground in case of fire. Many of the school buildings used to have them. I could crawl up inside them at recess to hide, so the children on the playground could not tease me. Miss Williams saw me through her window and let me climb in over the window sill as though we were playing a game. She did not scold, but rather laughed with me about it. She did not ask a question, but always after that, she had some work for me to do at recess. I understood her motive, and yet it did not crush my spirit to accept her favor. I felt that she knew I understood and we shared a plot together. The whole situa-

¹ Billie Davis, "I Was a Hobo Kid," *The Saturday Evening Post* (December 13, 1952), pp. 25, 107, 108.

tion was simply a temporary inconvenience which a camper kid had to put up with until she could get enough schooling to catch up with the people who lived in houses . . .

. . . I looked at the row of solemn teachers and wondered if they realized the potential power of their influence to shape a life, to change a destiny, to free a world. I wished that I could help them to recognize their power and encourage them to use it with wisdom and purpose. I longed to express my appreciation and pay them some appropriate tribute. I looked down at the notes of my speech: *What East High Has Meant to Me. Childish. Inadequate. Someday I would write a real tribute to the teachers and to the public schools of the United States of America.*

Many times since that night I have remembered the vow. I have picked up a pen or sat at the typewriter and tried to think of a fitting tribute. But proper words have never come. There is so little that I can say concretely. Except that I am not a camper now. I am a citizen, clean and smooth, equal to other citizens. And I live in a house.

Another type of tribute is paid to teachers by a world-renowned theologian and minister, Harry Emerson Fosdick. Dr. Fosdick had a better start in life than Billie Davis because his father was a professional man. Yet he, too, felt a debt to teachers.²

. . . What a debt I owe to some of my teachers! One of them in high school opened the doors of my appreciation to the great English poets, so that now, sixty years afterwards, when I read some of their noblest passages I feel the presence not only of the poet but of that inspiring teacher.

After long experience in personal counseling, often concerning vocational choices, I roughly divide people into two classes. Some will be content to deal with things—with real estate, engineering operations, business affairs, statistics, theories, and philosophies. Others, however, will never be content unless they deal directly with personalities—handling people face to face as physicians do, and nurses, ministers, and teachers. To such people, who care primarily about human folks, the financial rewards may be minimal, but they would be miserable in any other kind of vocation. A promising student whose hidden possibilities one can help to fulfill is for a good teacher life's most exciting and rewarding discovery.

² Harry Emerson Fosdick, "Growing up in the Profession," in D. Louise Sharp, ed., *Why Teach?* (New York: Henry Holt & Company, Inc., 1957), pp. 66, 67.

A former United States Senator from Michigan called teaching "the service profession" on which all other great professions are dependent.³

At the age of five or six, we literally transplant the child from the home to school. The influence of the teacher begins the first hour of the first day of school, and it continues unflaggingly. In the formative years, the tendency to emulate is strong; the power of the teacher to mold is great. Indeed, the very pattern of our life is many times set by the examples and influence of our teachers. Great lawyers, renowned statesmen, and eminent physicians often have chosen their professions because of the guidance of one or more teachers. The patience, kindness, and understanding of a teacher have been the salvation of many ill-adjusted children. Good teachers do far more than merely teach the subjects assigned them; they inculcate the best concepts of truth, honesty, justice, and the finer values of life.

... The tremendous responsibility and importance of our teachers cannot be denied. The other great professions are dependent upon what might aptly be termed "the service profession."

Statements similar to those in the foregoing paragraphs, all made by leaders in various walks of life, attest to the value of the work of teachers. Each individual, likewise, probably can recall a teacher or teachers who exerted strong influence on his life.

The truth is, good teachers are held in high regard by both individual students and the population at large. Another kind of satisfaction for teachers is implicit in the quotation cited—"the teacher never knows when he is teaching a future writer, scientist, congressman, senator, or even a future president." And even more awesome is the thought expressed by James R. Killian Jr., formerly Chairman of the President's Science Advisory Committee: "The fate of the Republic—and even of other free nations—may be determined in the classrooms of America."⁴

TEACHING AS SEEN BY TEACHERS

Another way to find out about a profession is to listen to what those who practice it say about it. What do renowned teachers,

³ Charles E. Potter, "Wake Up, America!" in Sharp, ed., *ibid.*, pp. 182, 183.

⁴ James R. Killian Jr., "Education for the Age of Science," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 2 (February, 1960), p. 11.

people who have the ability and ambition to be successful in any field, say about their profession? Three representative samples have been selected for presentation here. A beautiful eulogy of teaching was made by William Lyon Phelps.⁵

In my mind, teaching is not merely a life work, a profession, an occupation, a struggle: it is a passion. I love to teach. I love to teach as a painter loves to paint, as a musician loves to play, as a singer loves to sing, as a strong man rejoices to run a race. Teaching is an art—an art so great and so difficult to master that a man or a woman can spend a long life at it, without realizing much more than his limitations, and his mistakes, and his distance from the ideal. But the main aim of my happy days has been to become a good teacher, just as every architect wishes to be a good architect, and every professional poet strives toward perfection.

Sarah Caldwell has been teaching in the public schools of Ohio since 1929. An excellent example of a person with a double-track career, she has reared a family and practiced her profession too. A few years ago she received the professional honor of being chosen president of the National Education Association. Mrs. Caldwell says of her work: ⁶

. . . Teaching is such a big job and the opportunities are so vast—even with the problems that I have been writing about—a teacher who measures herself against such a responsibility always wonders, "Can I do it? Can I do it well?" "We can't do everything at once, but we can do something at once." I shall try to follow that sound advice again this year.

The best part of teaching is the pupil personnel—boys and girls with a wide variety of abilities and needs. They all offer a great challenge, and I love to teach them!

Another teacher and administrator whose career is described as distinguished indicates that his enthusiasm for teaching has grown through the years. John Lester Buford, superintendent of schools in Mt. Vernon, Illinois, and former president of the Na-

⁵ William Lyon Phelps, *Teaching in School and College* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), pp. 1-2.

⁶ Sarah Caldwell, "Teaching Is Hard Work," *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. CXCIV, No. 5 (November, 1934), p. 44.

tional Education Association, has been an educator for over 40 years.⁷

If I had to do it over again I would choose teaching. Knowing what I know now I would choose it even more enthusiastically than I did when I started in a rural school thirty-eight years ago. Education has never seen such wonderful days in this country as those which lie immediately before us. Never has its importance been recognized by citizens so generally as now. The White House Conference on Education gave invaluable advertising to our work.

Experienced teachers are acquainted firsthand with the inadequacies and frustrations in teaching as well as with the tremendous satisfactions inherent in the work. They know that salaries should be higher, that the teaching load is sometimes too heavy, that working conditions often need improvement, that a classroom shortage exists, that double shifts are not educationally sound, and that academic freedom is sometimes violated. Yet, as the evidence shows, they realize deep satisfactions from teaching which more than compensate for the heartaches and problems. This is the basic reason teachers are loyal to their profession, their pupils, and their community.

PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTIONS IN TEACHING

Creative and curious individuals, who enjoy working with people, find teaching to be an exciting and rewarding profession. Teachers have co-workers who are intellectually stimulating and congenial. Membership in the largest profession is a source of satisfaction. Generally, teachers enjoy relatively good working conditions. Teaching itself is enjoyed by most members of the profession.

Teachers Have Intellectually Stimulating Co-Workers

The minimum educational requirements for entrance into teaching assure that teachers are considerably ahead of the general population in terms of formal education. Today, in all states, the minimum requirement for high school teachers is four years of college, and forty-one states require elementary teachers to have a bachelor's degree. A fifth year of college is required for be-

⁷ John Lester Buford, "Proud to Teach," in Sharp, ed., op. cit., p. 21.

ginning teachers in the high schools of two states and five additional states require thirty semester hours beyond the bachelor's within a specified length of service (Connecticut, Indiana, New York, Oregon, and Washington.)

Not only are teachers well educated, they are, for the most part, happy, well adjusted people who possess a sound philosophy of life. High in their scheme of values is the worth and dignity of each human being. They are the kind of people whose company one enjoys.

Teachers share various mutual interests. Did you ever notice how teachers "talk shop" when they get together? They are interested in their work, which is a fundamental part of their lives. They also enjoy cultural and intellectual activities and endorse similar life values.

Membership in the Largest Profession

Teaching is the largest profession in America. Over 2 million teachers are employed in the United States alone. The number is certain to increase in the years ahead.

Satisfactions that accrue to teachers as members of the largest profession are of several types: (1) Teachers are encouraged to keep themselves informed at all times; (2) The profession maintains organizations through which teachers influence legislation and other social policy; (3) There is protection in numbers—teachers are relatively secure from unjust dismissal or undesirable political pressures; (4) The fellowship of other teachers is available in any community; (5) Numerous educational conventions and conferences are available to teachers.

Such satisfactions are intangible in nature. They are none the less real. A sense of personal satisfaction comes from belonging to a large, well-known, and respected profession.

Teachers Enjoy Good Working Conditions

Teachers usually enjoy good working conditions. The formal day is about six hours long. Of course, additional time is spent in preparation for classes, grading papers, and attending meetings. Most of this extra work may be done at one's convenience, however. The teacher may direct his own plan of work, within limits of the school schedule. The teacher, as a professional person, is

his own "boss."

Teachers enjoy a good holiday schedule. Typically, they receive two weeks at Christmas, two days at Thanksgiving, and a week for spring vacation. Two or three summer months are the teacher's to use as he chooses.

In most instances, the physical environment in which teachers work is pleasant. Each teacher in the elementary grades and many high school teachers have their own room in which to teach. They are relatively free to develop and use the space assigned to them as they see fit.

A teacher's off-the-job time is free compared to many professions. He is not subject to calls at night in the way a physician is. The minister, priest, or rabbi cannot call his time his own, to the extent that a teacher can. The teacher is not likely to have his schedule interrupted by labor disputes or strikes. The teacher's duty is fairly definite, and each individual has a great deal of latitude in scheduling his own time.

The Teaching Process Provides Satisfaction

The central purpose of a school and the major responsibility of teachers is to help pupils learn. Teaching—helping individuals to learn—is a source of profound satisfaction to the conscientious teacher. As Hansen has so aptly stated, there is tremendous personal satisfaction when you: *

... see the plans that you have made take shape as a significant and creative project for the students, when you see the light that dawns in the eyes of a child for whom you have made a difficult concept clear, when you see the self-assurance that blossoms when you have helped a student master a skill, when you see children or youth become more secure, more mature, happier under the influence of your teaching. . . .

The teacher who likes young people—as most do and all should—derives satisfaction from close association with them. Unique, loveable, energetic, uninhibited, and often unpredictable, youngsters provide continuous stimulation and challenge for the teacher. Monotony is seldom encountered in the profession of teaching. To teach is to cause changes in the behavior of others. To

* Kenneth H. Hansen, *Public Education in American Society* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950), p. 383.

cause changes in the behavior of other people is to exercise power. As Bertrand Russell has pointed out,⁹

Love of power, in its widest sense, is the desire to be able to produce intended effects upon the outer world, whether human or nonhuman. This desire is an essential part of human nature, and in energetic men it is a very large and important part.

Teachers use their power to cause change in the behavior of pupils so that each will be better able to meet life's requirements and make the most of individual talents. Thus, this "essential part of human nature"—the desire to exercise power—can be fulfilled in a rewarding and beneficent manner in teaching.

The teaching process itself has inherent satisfactions. Since teaching is an art that demands creativity, as does the composition of a sonata, the painting of a picture, the design of a building or the writing of a poem, the teacher should find excitement and satisfaction from engaging in a creative process. As Stiles has stated:¹⁰

Creative teaching is characterized by such terms as variety, inspiration, enthusiasm, imagination, insightfulness, empathy. It aims at helping students develop initiative, independent effort essential to self-direction and self-discipline, capacity to view the broad sweep of events, facts, and principles, as well as the organized use of intelligence to solve problems. The major motivational forces of the creative teacher are curiosity, desire, ambition, pride, and the satisfaction that comes from a job well done. . . .

OPPORTUNITIES FOR SELF-REALIZATION

The desire to accomplish, to realize self, is a fundamental human aspiration. Many believe that the only lasting way to achieve this objective is through service to others. The profession of teaching is a type of life's work through which self-acceptance and self-fulfillment may be realized. Teachers render service. The teacher influences the young; he enjoys prestige; he continues to learn throughout his lifetime; he does important work; and his work permits him to enjoy a normal home life.

⁹ Bertrand Russell, *Power—A New Social Analysis* (New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1938), p. 282.

¹⁰ Lindley J. Stiles, "Creative Teaching for Excellence in Education," *School and Society*, Vol. 87, No. 2153 (September 28, 1959), p. 356.

Teachers Render Socially Essential Service

Education, in an age of intelligence, is indispensable both to the society and the individual. Not only is the work of teachers vital to the full development of talents and human resources to guarantee maximum fulfillment and freedom for each person, it is essential to insure that self-government and free institutions survive.

As Thomas Jefferson noted, "A nation that expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization expects what never has been and never will be." The cold war is essentially a struggle of ideas, ideologies, and intelligence. Its emphasis on conquest of space, production of self-guided missiles, improvement of standards of living for the world's underdeveloped nations—all succeed or fail according to the quality of education achieved by the competing nations. Peter J. Drucker made the point forcefully when he said: "All underdeveloped countries need new educational thinking as badly as they need new schools."¹¹

The well-known controversy that broke out in 1958 over the question "Are Russian schools superior to those in the United States?" attests to the vital role of education, whether it be in a free or totalitarian society. Obviously, teaching is an indispensable service to a nation as well as to individual boys and girls.

The profession of teaching is committed to service. Members of the profession realize deep and lasting satisfaction from contributions they make to society in general and to individual pupils and parents in particular. To serve one's fellow man is to find one's own self. Stated in Biblical terminology, "He who would lose his life shall find it."

Influence on the Young

Teachers influence the young by:

- | | | |
|--------------|---|---|
| Direct Ways: | { | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teaching skills and knowledge essential to intellectual development. 2. Helping them become disciplined, socially acceptable human beings capable of living harmoniously with their fellows. 3. Assisting them in learning how to learn. |
|--------------|---|---|

¹¹ Peter J. Drucker, "Politics for a New Generation," *Harper's Magazine*, vol. 220, no. 1321 (June, 1960), p. 38.

- Indirect Ways:

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Serving as examples. 2. Shaping character, tastes, appreciations, and values. 3. Helping boys and girls to discover their potentials and to develop ambitions to excel. 	}
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The influence of the teacher on young people has been eloquently summarized by Northwestern University philosopher, Paul A. Schilpp, in these words:¹²

. . . What, precisely, is the function of the teacher in a free society? I should say his chief function is that of being an opener of doors: he constantly opens new doors to his students, thus permitting them to see vistas previously undreamed of, to enter exciting areas of experience, to find new roads in the search for and pursuit of truth. Only thus can the student's horizon be broadened and his life enriched. In the final analysis, of course, each student will have to use his own eyes to see and his own mind to judge, just as only he himself must in the end walk through the door; this the teacher can never do for him. These facts can be seen and tested at any educational level. How many doors, for example, are opened to anyone by the mastery—or at least effective use—of the three R's!

This type of empirical evidence that teachers "open doors" for their pupils is supported by the results of an authoritative research study. All the people listed in one issue of *Who's Who in America* were asked in one study to identify those who had influenced them most. Most of these leaders reported that a teacher or teachers had exercised significant influence upon their lives and their achievements.¹³

Teachers Enjoy Sound Prestige

Teachers are accorded a high and sound standing by society. The importance of public approbation was stated succinctly by Whiting Williams:¹⁴ *"What every worker knows is this: that sooner or later the final joy of his work is settled, not by him nor by his employer, but by the social standing awarded him by*

¹² Paul A. Schilpp, "Teaching: The Opening of Doors," *Saturday Review* (February 15, 1958), p. 16.

¹³ Stephen S. Visher, "Civilization's Most Valuable Resources," *Social Education*, Vol. 17, No. 1 (January, 1953), p. 23.

¹⁴ Whiting Williams, *Main Springs of Men* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1925), pp. 61-62.

his fellow citizens."

Self-realization for teachers is contingent to some extent upon approval of them and their work by society. This approval is obviously available to every teacher with the ability and ambition to merit it.

Continued Learning of Teachers

The professional teacher is expected to develop intellectually throughout his lifetime. Each year, or semester, the teacher works with new students. He cannot, therefore, even if so inclined, repeat exactly his instruction. He is constantly challenged to come to know and to teach new individuals whose group atmospheres vary. This factor alone helps to keep the teacher mentally alert.

In addition to turnover in pupil personnel, the teacher's subject matter changes. New knowledge is accumulating at a rapid pace. Increasingly, the behavioral scientists are producing additional insights concerning human behavior—learning, motivation, and human growth and development.

The good teacher is permitted and encouraged to be a scholar throughout his lifetime. Teachers usually are people who have an insatiable appetite for knowledge. They want to continue to learn. They naturally seek perpetually for truth and ways to translate it into the improvement of life and culture. Their search helps to provide self-realization.

Home Life of Teachers

A final advantage offered by the teaching profession is the opportunity for a stable and satisfactory home life. Teachers' schedules permit them to spend reasonable amounts of time with their families, in fact more than is possible in some other professional fields. This is equally true for men and women.

In addition to the favorable time factor, desirable home life for teachers is enhanced by their professional study and knowledge of human behavior. The teacher, a student of human development, should be in a position to guide the growth of his own children in an effective manner.

Other features of teachers and the teaching profession that enhance wholesome family life are that: (1) Teachers usually enjoy good mental health which is a professional requirement

and also a by-product of the lives they lead; (2) Teachers are above average in physical health and can look forward to a life expectancy which exceeds most other professional groups; (3) Being of high intelligence themselves, teachers may make their homes centers of culture and intellectual stimulation; (4) Teachers usually have high ideals; (5) Women teachers can successfully follow a double-track or interrupted career pattern; (6) Teachers are mobile—they can move from community to community if such changes are to the best interests of other members of the family.

A POSITIVE APPRAISAL OF TEACHING

Before closing this chapter and book, a few words of retrospect may be in order. The reader no doubt has been aware of the emphasis in this chapter, indeed throughout the entire book, on the positive features of teaching. The temptation to dwell upon the disadvantages and unsolved problems in the profession of teaching has been resisted. That many such conditions and features exist is freely acknowledged. In fact, one could write a book detailing only the areas in the profession of teaching that need to be improved. All professions, as does life itself, have their seamy side. Teaching, perhaps more than others, has exposed its negative features instead of pointing to its numerous positive characteristics that commend it as a career field to able, ambitious, mature young people.

The optimistic and positive interpretation of the profession of teaching is not a misleading picture. The profession holds all the promises made in this book. But the individual must have the talents, ambition, health, and a positive outlook himself to translate such potentialities into personal attainments. As in any other walk of life, the person gets back about what he puts into teaching.

Education, as an important field of service, has been summarized in the following allegory:¹⁵

When Jupiter offered the prize of immortality to him who was the most useful to mankind, the court was crowded with competitors. The warrior boasted of his patriotism, but Jupiter thundered. The rich man

¹⁵ John W. Harold, *Teachers for Our Times* (Kansas City, Mo.: Intercollegiate Press, 1956), pp. 63-64.

boasted of his magnificence, and Jupiter showed him the widow's mite. The painter boasted of his power to give life to inanimate canvas, and Jupiter breathed loud in derisinn. The sculptor boasted of making gods that contended with the immortals for human borage; Jupiter frowned. The orator boasted of his power to sway the nation with his voice. The poet spoke of his power to move even the gods by praise; Jupiter blushed. The musician claimed to practice the only human science that had been transplanted to heaven; Jupiter hesitated. Then he saw a venerable-looking man gazing with intense interest upon the group of competitors, but presenting no claim.

"What are thou?" said the benigned monarch.

"Only a spectator," replied the gray-haired saint. "All of these were my pupils."

"Crown him! Crown him!" said Jupiter. "Crown the faithful teacher with immortality, and make room for him at my right hand."

SUMMARY

"And gladly wolde he lerne, and gladly teach." These words from Chaucer indicate a basic reason individuals choose teaching as a career. They "gladly teach" because they derive basic satisfactions from their work.

People from all walks of life look to education and teachers for knowledge that will make their life enjoyable and worthwhile. Those who know teaching best—teachers—attest to the fact that significant satisfactions may be derived from the profession.

Individuals who are creative, who are curious, and who like people find in teaching an exciting and rewarding profession. The teacher has co-workers who are stimulating and congenial. Teachers are well educated and share many mutual interests and values. They belong to a respected profession, enjoy relatively good working conditions, have opportunities to be creative, and render indispensable service to society and to individuals.

Teachers are accorded a high social standing by society. This is an important source of satisfaction. It is natural for people to desire social approbation.

Man lives in a changing world. Subject matter changes, and pupil personnel change. Changes make new knowledge available. Teaching is a profession in which members are encouraged and stimulated to continue to acquire knowledge throughout their professional lives.

A final advantage offered by the profession of teaching is

the opportunity for a stable and satisfactory home life. Teachers are able to spend reasonable amounts of time with their families. Women can combine their careers of teaching and homemaking. Because teachers enjoy good mental health and are intelligent, educated persons they are capable of contributing to wholesome family life.

This has been an optimistic and positive interpretation of teaching. The profession holds all the promises made in this chapter for those who are capable and willing to go after those promises.

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